TRENDS IN EDUCATION

28

Teachers' Centres
Longitudinal Studies
Geography for Juniors
A View of Primary Schools
Outdoor Education
Art in General Education
Dartington Hall School
World Youth Forum

OCTOBER 1972

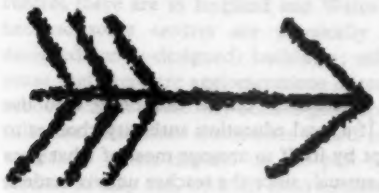
Department of Education and Science

HMSO 18½p NET

Annual Subscription 84p including postage

The opinions expressed in Trends in Education *are the writers' own. They may not necessarily be in accordance with the views of the Department of Education and Science.*

CONTENTS



NUMBER TWENTY-EIGHT OCTOBER 1972

Developing Teachers' Centres 2
by J. G. Owen

The Longitudinal Approach 8
by Ronald Davie

Geography in Junior Schools 14
by J. W. Morris

A Look-in at the Primary School 24

Outdoor Education 28
by R. O. Hopkins

Art in General Education 33
1. Changes in the Arts
by Aneurin M. Thomas
2. Work in Schools
by T.C. Keay

Public, Private and Progressive 41

World Youth Meeting 47
by Michael Portillo

Trend-Setter 51

Book Reviews 53

The Editorial Board of Trends in Education *consist of senior officers of the Department and senior members of the Inspectorate. The Chief Information Officer is general editor, supported by an executive editor (Martyn Clémans) and an associate editor (David Hopkinson, HMI). Correspondence should be addressed to the executive editor.*

The editorial office of Trends in Education is at Elizabeth House, York Road, London S.E.1.
Enquiries concerning subscriptions should be addressed to HMSO, P.O. Box 569, London S.E.1.

Published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office
Printed in England by C. Tinling & Co. Ltd., London and Prescot.

© *Crown copyright* 1972

Teachers' centres have developed differently in different areas. This article discusses the way one LEA has approached the problem.

Developing Teachers' Centres

J. G. OWEN

J. G. Owen, formerly joint secretary of the Schools Council is now Deputy Chief Education Officer for Devon

The ways differ in which a teachers' centre can bring into use facilities, personnel and aid. If a local education authority chooses to be prescriptive, it can attempt by itself to arrange most of what goes on in a local centre. This is unusual, since the teacher unions made it clear in the mid-sixties that teachers' centres should be what their name implied: teachers were to organise their own training to meet their own needs. To accede to this idea has been difficult for some authorities. For others it was, early on, difficult to do other than leave the total organisation of the affairs of teachers' centres to the teachers. Neither policy, as an overall way of doing things, worked successfully. A too tight control by an LEA led to the idea of compulsion and consequent unwillingness by teachers to attend what were seen simply as traditional training courses; too much autonomy for teachers led to a wallowing about. Teachers in England and Wales were, after all, neither accustomed nor trained to manage their own re-education. Devon's policy was to allow teachers' centres, first, to find their own level and then to support them with part-time and, later, with an increasing number of full-time leaders and wardens. To find their own level it was necessary that there should be ample experiment with a number of differing modes of professional self-renewal. Straight courses of instruction in new materials and teaching methods are still arranged: but the idea of seminars, workshops, groups in which the practical trial of ideas can be mingled with discussion and review —each of these represents some type of fresh attempt to allow teachers to re-learn in a way which suits their own needs.

Two types of centre had come into being by 1967—one functioning as a disseminatory base for specific national projects, the other with a broader, exhortatory and inspirational background of total curriculum renewal. Not surprisingly, teachers in areas where a disseminatory centre had been set up took more naturally to the idea of broadening the scope of their efforts. There were arguments about whether there should be in any one area of the country a series of single-purpose centres or a string of generalised curriculum centres. The arguments were not, however, crucial: local education authorities, teachers' associations and teachers themselves seized on the ideas outlined in Schools Council Working Paper No. 10.* A rapid expansion in the number of centres followed; between two hundred and

* In part this could be attributed to the development of the Certificate of Secondary Education in the mid-sixties: as an examination based on regional boards and as an examination whose syllabuses were ostensibly teacher-controlled, many small syllabus-making groups of teachers had already come into being—highly localised and concerned with subject content and examinability. The fact that the idea of professional, self-

directed teachers' groups already existed clearly had some significance: but the transfer of interest from separate subjects to the larger concept of curriculum did not prove easy—nor did it have any effect on what happened in *primary* schools.

three hundred were calculated to have come into being by 1968. By 1972 the figure is estimated to be more than 400.

There has to be some element of guesswork in calculating how many centres there are in England and Wales at any one moment: this is because some centres are physically identifiable, with specially designed (or re-designed) buildings; others are centres only in the sense that there are agglomerations of teachers who come together in schools within a narrowly defined geographical area. Some centres have full-time organisers (sometimes called leaders, at other times called wardens): others depend on the part-time work of an enthusiastic teacher to map out, with his local committee, the centre's events term by term. Some centres quickly flourish and stay that way, others crawl into life, die, or seem at any moment ready to disappear. And success and failure, in terms of survival or disappearance, depend on several factors.

Conditions of Success

The more tightly bound a centre is to one national project (or more) the better are its chances of survival. If it is a local focus for national work in the humanities, or moral education, or technology, or a new reading method, it can virtually guarantee itself a caucus of interested, committed teachers. But it may also have evolved its own variant in some one aspect of the curriculum—quite independently of national schemes. For example, centres which have consistently produced their own local co-operative schemes for new mathematics teaching, find that the vitality of re-appraisal and curriculum renewal spreads elsewhere—to art, to language or to environmental studies.

Other centres will succeed because their leadership is strong: their secretary or their committee may demand of teachers in the area a positive commitment to at least one local scheme of curriculum development. Others, yet again, will succeed because their local authority adviser is respected, supportive, non-condescending, and enthusiastic. Or the local institute of education, or the local college of education, may lend staff and resources to centres. All these are marks of strength.*

Marks of weakness can be seen where those who attempt locally to organise a centre's programme aim at a teacher consensus of what is wanted in the way either of regular discussions or of courses—and then fail to gain that consensus. Or the sheer teaching problems of an area whose whole environment is anti-educational may be too great to leave the teacher with the energy to give yet more time and effort to the task of professional self-renewal which a teachers' centre may demand of him. This is likely to be the problem of some decayed urban areas; by contrast, in an idyllic country district the teacher may be so accustomed to isolation in a small school that to find the chance to meet other teachers in the examination of professional problems will be welcome but strange—and the distance (even if it is only 20

* For an Australian view, compare Bassett, G.W: *Innovation in Primary Education*, pp. 129–130, New York, 1970.

minutes in a car) may be enough to discourage even the ardent teacher when there is ice on the roads or when, in summer, a large lawn needs to be mowed. And, in justice to the teaching profession, quite apart from off-the-job satisfaction and compensations, many of its members are already deeply involved in the work of their own subject associations.

There is no better way of giving the flavour of local variations than by quoting the experiences of full-time wardens at a handful of centres in Devon.*

First, at the longest established centre, which not only provides very attractive residential facilities but also forms an enclave in one of England's very few colleges specialising in music, drama and the arts, the number of in-service training courses, conferences, seminars and workshops has doubled in five years. What is particularly significant is that while work which is a separate concern of teachers in primary and secondary schools has increased gradually and steadily, the combination of primary and secondary work has increased very dramatically. This does not reflect a movement in the reorganisation of middle schools in Devon at the same pace as in other parts of the country; but it does reflect a growing (and national) preoccupation with the period which is now commonly described as 'the middle years of schooling'. The establishment of comprehensive schools in greater numbers, the abolition of selection tests and of other procedures for separating children according to their abilities at the age of eleven—these movements have led to a clearer realisation of the continuous nature of education. One of the strongest forces for continuity is interconnection within the curriculum. The development of stronger lines of continuity is arduous but interesting for teachers who come new to the idea of their dependence upon each other. It is, however, helpful that many national development projects still offer a model of work which, in common with the earliest work which was launched by the Nuffield Foundation, covers the needs of pupils in the age range of 8 to 13 years.

Another noticeable aspect of growth has been the increase in the number of courses and conferences which teachers have attended. In five years, there are twice as many topics covered in the field of primary education; twice as many, too, in secondary education. The increase in the number of topics covered by both primary and secondary teachers together, however, shows a six-fold increase. The growth has, in each case, stemmed from the addition of courses which cover broad topics as well as single subjects. This again illustrates the gradual breakdown of separatism in British education. Not only are the stages of education coming to be more clearly seen to be linked but so also are the subject-matters and disciplines of education.

In a part of the county where, because of topography and tradition, teachers have been accustomed to isolation, another centre shows a comparable increase in the generalised type of course. Here, the centre although it has the longest-serving full-time warden is still only three years old. In that time, however, the teachers' centre has passed through three phases: first, what was provided was the instructional

---

* For these comments I am indebted to Mr. T. A. Q. Griffiths, Mr. J. M. Batten, Mr. J. le F. Dumpleton.

type of course which teachers asked for simply to reduce their ignorance. The effects of metrication on British life and the changeover to metric measures at school was a clear example of this kind. New developments in the teaching of reading, new approaches to the humanities, the improvement of careers and counselling services, how best to use various new types of audio-visual aid—each of these found, in the early days, a strong following. Gradually, however, teachers came to feel that there were too many instructional courses. Two strains became apparent: first, an adult has only a limited capacity or patience for being taught rather than for devising something for himself. Secondly, the repetitious demand for attendance week by week created an increasing lethargy.

Group work

At this point the description was invented of teachers being 'overcoursed'. A demand developed for more semi-autonomous study groups. The focus of effort moved from the extrinsic to the intrinsic domain. Teachers still ask for information and for (some) instruction; for the rest, however, they prefer to learn for themselves, under good guidance with good support.

But what does guidance or support amount to? Successful groups (to quote the warden of this centre) are characterised by 'having (i) a clear purpose or common interest (e.g. to identify the functions of the careers teachers or the characteristics of various reading schemes); (ii) an energetic and knowledgeable leader/secretary; and (iii) administrative support when needed—in that order of importance'.

The same warden goes on to describe how these factors differently affect primary and secondary school teachers, how they differ in their intensity in work which has a continuous thread (for example, the development of methods of team teaching) as against efforts which are short lived or have one straightforward purpose:

> The first two characteristics are seldom found in ad hoc groups of primary teachers. The success of this term's team teaching seminars seems attributable to (i) Heads being concerned about how to make effective use of staff when limitations of space have prevented their using the traditional class/teacher type of organisation; (ii) a very able Head who seemed to the group to have workable solutions to a wide range of detailed problems; and (iii) my being able to attend all meetings, work with the Heads involved and produce detailed minutes of meetings for subsequent study.

And again:

> We have held a substantial proportion of one-off meetings. Most have no obvious follow-up in terms of subsequent meetings but are intended to enable ideas, information and examples of work to be presented which one hopes may be taken up by a small group or in individual schools or classrooms. This does happen. Such meetings are the staple of 'local' centre work where limited numbers inhibit courses or specialised group work for which teachers come to the main centre.

This comment on the effect of single meetings which lead to a proliferation of smaller scale and more localised efforts of teacher-initiated work is in itself interesting. The Warden covers a region of the county: but within that region there are in addition to the centre from which he principally works, smaller country towns, with their own population of teachers who find it easier and possibly more

congenial to work together on the basis of a small cell or family of professionals.

In commenting on the changes in attitude and acceptability which he has noticed in his time at this centre, the same warden points out that:

> ... the relative success of these approaches is only quantifiable in terms of teacher attendances which have been as follows (since accurate records have been kept):
>
> | | | | |
> |---|---|---|---|
> | Autumn Term 1970 | 28 meetings | 325 attendances | |
> | Spring Term 1971 | 22 „ | 447 | „ |
> | Summer Term 1971 | 23 „ | 500 | „ |
> | Autumn Term 1971 | 40 „ | 741 | „ |
>
> These figures must be set against a total 'catchment' of some 150 primary school teachers in the major area. Approximately one third of attendances are made by teachers from three neighbouring areas. Secondary teachers' involvement this term, owing to re-organisation, has been negligible.

The latter point that the reorganisation of schools is taking the time and energy of teachers in secondary schools is itself a useful sign of the benefit which the admittedly brief tradition of teachers' centres has brought to the profession. Large scale changes in secondary and post-secondary education in the area have affected four schools and a college of further education (post-16 years). This reorganisation in itself calls for a considerable degree of curriculum re-planning. If teachers had not been used to the *idea*—even if they had previously done nothing about it—of being responsible for their own development work, for their own schools' curricula and for their own subjects' syllabuses, reorganisation would be unlikely to have been accompanied by the same degree of professional self-awareness.

In another area of the same county, rather nearer to the centre of things in that it is geographically nearer to the principal county town, to the local authority headquarters, to the university, the institute of education and to professional libraries, the same pattern is visible of movement away from specific and instructional courses to more generalised teacher-group enquiries. The warden (again full-time) here suggests that the reasons lie partly in his own increasing awareness of what his job is, growth of experience on the part of the executive committee, of teachers with and through whom he works, a growing and general awareness that what teachers themselves want is important (rather, perhaps, than what others think they need) and the growing acceptance of what teachers' centres can achieve—an awareness on the part of teachers and their employers and of other agents in the process of re-training.

The warden suggests, too, that teachers' centres have to pass through a process of development which cannot be artificially shortened.

> The first stage is that of catering for rudimentary needs ('tips for teachers') and attempting inappropriate in-service techniques (copying existing provisions). Then the Centre begins to develop an identity and its role becomes clearer. Teachers become more actively involved as they learn to dispense with authoritarian leadership. As the surface needs of teachers become gratified, they become more aware of deeper needs—the need to examine critically what and why they are teaching. From this stage, I would prophesy that they will go on to want to examine critically the curriculum as a whole, and from that point to a critical look at the education system.

Three other comments by the same Warden have their own interest: he feels, for instance, that:

> . . . changes of attitude have taken place in the minds of all the parties involved in Devon with the in-service education of teachers. These changes have come about partly through experience, and partly through deliberate attempts to study and explain the role of teachers' centres in the County. The full-time wardens, who are professionally orientated towards the aims and ideals of in-service education at teachers' centre level have consciously addressed themselves to the task of self-education. It is not recognised clearly enough that at present there is no organised (or even unorganised) form of training for wardens, nor is there very much relevant literature.

Again:

> . . . teachers are coming to accept the teachers' centre as part of the educational system, and are becoming more aware of the need for them to play an active as opposed to passive role in their own professional education. This is not to deny that there is still a considerable body of teachers who have not so far found any relevance in the teachers' centre. I suggest that the onus is on the Centre to make itself relevant to teachers. It must not expect an automatic loyalty.

And finally, a comment which has appropriateness for a rural area:

> . . . the teachers' centre has become popular with teachers working in small village schools because for the first time in their careers they no longer feel isolated. The opportunities provided by teachers' centre meetings for a conversational exchange of professional ideas, problems, etc. has been of inestimable advantage to such teachers.

Eleven factors are identified by the same warden as being likely to have had particular importance in bringing about changes of attitude towards teachers' centres. Most of these have been mentioned briefly: two which should, however, be noted are that:

> . . . many of the changes which have happened are due to more mundane things. The provision of a building has had a big influence on the development of this centre. If nothing else, it has at least given it a physical identity. Again, the provision of generous clerical assistance and good office facilities has been another potent influence. This has enabled the centre to develop better communications, and communications are vital to success—particularly in a rural area.

Teachers' centres in any loose structure of curriculum reform such as that of Britain will form a nodal point at which pressures will meet. Prestigious trial projects, the whimsies of those who lead local educational opinion, the strategies (or stratagems) by which change will come about or by which development will be planned—these can clash whenever teachers gather to examine their professionalism. The significance of the clash, whether it destroys co-operation or creates new impetuses will vary from area to area and from subject to subject.

In a recent American commentary it has been suggested that together with child centred infant education and open plan primary schools, the British invention of local teacher-based reform of the curriculum may have a very far reaching and significant effect on the educational practices of other developed countries. But the invention is barely seven years old. At present it is enough to say that it seems to be the beginning of a strategy which will succeed.

The involvement of schools in longitudinal research studies has grown in recent years and this process may well continue. What, exactly, is a 'longitudinal study'? Are such projects worth supporting? And what is their particular contribution to educational thought and practice?

The Longitudinal Approach

RONALD DAVIE

Ronald Davie is Deputy Director of the National Children's Bureau, and Co-Director of the National Child Development Study

The National Child Development Study has already involved the active co-operation of many thousands of teachers as well as doctors and health visitors in England, Scotland and Wales. There is nothing new about the longitudinal approach as such. It merely implies the study of an individual or individuals over a period, where the main focus of interest is upon any change that takes place during that time, or upon the effect of events on such change. The approach is not exclusive to the research worker. For example, a school-based system of continuous assessment is longitudinal in character and is designed to monitor individual children's development or educational performance during their time in school. If, however, the individual examinations, tests or assessment are seen in isolation they provide a 'cross sectional' view of each child's performance at a particular point in time.

This example illustrates an important point about the longitudinal method, namely that its essential feature has to do with the purpose for which any information is gathered, and the use to which it is put, and not with the nature of the information itself. Thus, continuous assessment at school consists of an ongoing record of test results and comments by staff. The longitudinal element lies in the fact that the present results are seen in the context of what has been recorded before for each child. The total picture reflects the dynamic nature of the individual child's development.

The value of longitudinal records in school derives partly from the known fallibility of any single test or assessment. More importantly, such records may help in anticipating the child's likely future needs. They may also serve to highlight 'early warning signs' of possible difficulties to follow. In a more general sense, records of this kind may enable individual schools or teachers to evaluate the effects of organisational or curricular changes on children's progress.

Cross-Sectional Results

The same kinds of tests or assessments, which over a period of time produce a longitudinal picture, can be used in isolation to give a cross-sectional 'snapshot' of children's current performance. They may be used as the basis for decisions about educational placement. Alternatively, this year's results may be compared with the previous year's for other children. Thus, cross-sectional results can—like longitudinal results but in a different way—be used to measure change.

Research studies of children's development mirror in some respects these features of school records. Cross-sectional studies sometimes have a strong descriptive element. For instance, Ministry reading surveys* carried out at intervals since the last war have given valuable information about national standards of reading amongst 11 and 15 year-olds. (H.M.S.O. 1966). Although the surveys were cross-sectional in nature, an important facet has been the light they have thrown upon the improvement in reading standards over this period. To this extent, then, they have been concerned with change over time. Nevertheless, since different children were included in each survey, the results could not be used to examine change in the performance of individuals. A longitudinal study of the same children at 11 and 15 years would show for example, how many and which children who were backward readers at 11 years were still backward four years later.

However, most cross-sectional studies in education go beyond straightforward descriptions. Many are concerned with relationships between two or more factors because of the possible light this may throw upon cause and effect. Thus, the National Foundation for Educational Research's work on reading† examined the relationships between reading attainment and, for example, type and size of school, size of class and teaching method.

Retrospective Studies

Many research enquiries gather retrospective information. For example, a group of children may be studied whose present status is of special interest or concern. They may be educationally retarded or intellectually gifted, delinquent adolescents or Duke of Edinburgh Award winners. The questions which the researcher asks himself are likely to include one such as: is there anything about these children's previous experience which can account for their present situation?

This kind of research may be relatively inexpensive to mount because the information can often be gathered quickly. There is no necessary waiting period; and time costs money. However, retrospective studies have particular difficulties. From a practical standpoint, records are rarely complete and people's memories are fallible. More seriously, retrospective recall may be influenced by the informant's knowledge of subsequent events. Thus, if a child has present difficulties, his parents are more likely to remember earlier anxieties, or events which they have assumed to be relevant, than the parents of children who have no difficulties. In addition, the sequence of events may in retrospect be confused.

A further shortcoming arises from the fact that it is very rare to find an invariable or consistent association between an earlier event and some later situation. Thus, although a group of delinquent children may more often come from broken homes, they will not all do so. Furthermore, some—probably most—children from broken homes do not become delinquent. However, the retrospective study would permit little or no investigation of this question nor, in general, any

---

* Department of Education and Science (1966). *Progress in Reading* 1948–1964. H.M.S.O., London.

† Morris, J. M. *Reading in the Primary School* (1959), and *Standards and Progress in Reading* (1966). N.F.E.R. London.

estimate of the proportions of children from broken homes in the general population who do and do not become delinquent.

However, every research method has its own particular shortcomings and difficulties. The retrospective enquiry is a valuable weapon in the educational research armoury. What of other kinds of longitudinal studies of children?

The 'Prospective', Longitudinal Approach

Their common feature is that they are 'prospective' or ongoing, collecting information on or from the same children at intervals. Some may last only a few days, such as the studies of early responses in young babies; some are designed to extend from birth or earlier until well into maturity.

Before dealing with this latter group, mention should be made of those in between the two extremes. They will include studies of children or students as they pass through a school or a university course; the initial research aim may be to see which children fare well, or badly, and why. Ultimately, it may be planned, where necessary, to change the organisation or the curriculum in the light of the findings. These changes can again be monitored by observing another group as it makes its way through the system.

We have seen that in retrospective studies, interest usually centres on children who have reached some defined end point or state. The researcher tries to reach back through time in a search for events or circumstances which might explain this state. However, in prospective studies the focus of interest is often the prognosis for children who have a common starting point. They may, for example, be children of very low birth weight. It is known that such children are more often stillborn or die at birth. But if they survive, what then? A prospective study in South Africa a few years ago attracted a great deal of attention. It was suggested that women who used a certain apparatus during pregnancy gave birth to highly intelligent children; a prospective follow-up was designed to examine this hypothesis.

Such studies have their methodological problems, too. Can it be assumed, for example, that women who are offered—or accept—special apparatus during pregnancy are a representative cross-section of mothers? Probably not. It would be necessary therefore to identify and follow-up the children of a control group of mothers who were matched in every important respect except the use of the apparatus. But how can one match two groups effectively when in the nature of the experiment one group is getting special treatment and the other is not? In the field of drug trials an elaborate technique of 'double blind' administration is used. Neither the subjects nor the people who administer the drugs know who is receiving the experimental dose and who is taking an innocuous placebo.

This technique, however, is virtually impossible in the educational field and many researchers have struggled with the problem of trying to ensure that the control group in a follow-up study receive as much attention as the experimental group.

Thus far, we have largely been concerned with longitudinal studies which have a relatively narrow focus of interest centred on children who in one way or another deviate from the normal. There is, finally, quite a small group of prospective longitudinal studies in which a

representative sample of children are followed up over long periods. The group is small mainly because such work requires long-term commitment by the researchers, which is not attractive to many, particularly since many of the most valuable results tend to appear only after 10 or 15 years.

Even with this group, fairly clear differences of method and objective can be seen. Tanner's study described in *Growth at Adolescence* is concerned with physical growth and development of a group of London children. The Newsons' project in Nottingham, portrayed in *Four Years Old in an Urban Community* has been largely concerned to date with child rearing practice. The study by Hindley and Moore* has had a more psychological orientation, although it is concerned with the same group of children as features in Tanner's work (op cit).

These three projects have each involved several hundred children. Nevertheless, the information gathered has been of a detailed nature and the work carried out either by the researchers personally or directly under their supervision.

Finally, two large-scale, national projects should be considered. The National Survey of Health and Development is a longitudinal study of several thousand children in England, Scotland and Wales. The children were all born in the same week of March, 1946. They have been studied at intervals throughout their lives and the project is still continuing.

Perhaps the best known publication arising from the National Survey has been *The Home and the School* by J. W. B. Douglas. The results reported there illustrate well some of the strengths of a large-scale, longitudinal study and, incidentally, the potential influence of research findings upon policy decisions. Douglas concluded that the gap in terms of educational attainment between children from middle class and those from working class homes widens considerably over the years from eight to eleven. This was attributed to the influence of home environment reinforced by—rather than compensated by—their schooling. Coming as it did at a time when the 'eleven plus' procedure and the tripartite secondary education system was already under close scrutiny, the report gave more force to the argument that equality of opportunity in education was far from being realised.

The National Child Development Study

Douglas' study was in many ways a pathfinder to the National Child Development Study, described by *Education* in 1970 as a 'major longitudinal research—probably the most important in the history of education in this country'. The study, like Douglas', also selected one week's births in England, Scotland and Wales; the same week was chosen twelve years later in 1958. This time, however, all of the week's births were included. The National Children's Bureau mounted the study.

The strength and value of the study derives from a number of factors. First, the comprehensive nature of the original birth survey and of the follow-up information is unique in the world for any national study. Secondly, the representativeness of the group—some 16,000 in all—

---

* Hindley, C. B., (1971). 'Testing of Infant Development and Prediction of 11-year I.Q. in Normal Children'. *Proc. Roy. Soc. Med.* Vol. 64, 1971.

has been maintained by effective tracing of the sample and good co-operation from local authorities, schools and parents. Thirdly, the study is interdisciplinary from the overall direction and the research team to the kinds of information gathered. Fourthly, the size of the sample has made it possible to mount separate studies in some depth of special groups of children such as the backward readers, gifted and adopted children and those born to unmarried mothers. Fifthly, the prospective nature of the study overcomes some of the difficulties discussed earlier and makes it possible, for example, to study those children from broken homes who are not adversely affected.

The first follow-up of the children took place at the end of their infant schooling when they were seven years old; and the second was at the end of their junior schooling at eleven years. A third follow-up is planned to coincide with the children's final year of compulsory schooling in 1973/74.

At each follow-up, information is gathered from three major sources: from schools and teachers, who complete individual assessment forms and administer a number of educational and other tests; from the parents, who are interviewed, usually by a health visitor; and from school medical officers, who carry out a special medical examination. In addition, from eleven years onward the children themselves have begun to take a more active part by completing a short questionnaire and writing a composition.

The results of the second follow-up are now beginning to appear* (Pearson and Peckham, 1972; Parrinder, 1972); a comprehensive account of the first follow-up has also been published.† One of the more striking features of this is the relationship which emerges between the circumstances surrounding the children's births and their subsequent development. Many conditions during pregnancy and at birth are known to carry a very high mortality risk. But what happens to the great majority of children who survive these hazards? Some of the answers to this question have important and urgent implications for health education. For example, results from the study show that heavy smoking by mothers during pregnancy is associated with measurable retardation in their children's reading and arithmetic at seven years.

The cross-sectional results at each stage of the study provide a rich backcloth against which teachers and others can view the educational standards, behaviour, health and environment of the children in their care. The results also pose many questions, not least in the field of regional differences and differences between English, Welsh and Scottish children. Why is it, for example, that Scottish children are on average nearly a year ahead of the English and Welsh children in reading after only two years in school? Is it because, as the study showed, that Scottish children are introduced to phonics earlier? Or is it because their parents read to them more often? Is it coincidence

---

* Parrinder, D. (1972). 'Housing for Children: A Second Look'. *Housing Review*, 21, 3, 85–6; and Pearson, R. C. M., and Peckham, C. (1972) 'Preliminary Findings at the Age of 11 years on Children in the National Child Development Study (1958 cohort)'. *Community Medicine*, 127, 9, 113–116.

† Davie, R., Butler, N. and Goldstein, H. (1972). *From Birth to Seven* Longman, London.

that the region which tops the reading league in England is the north? Or does the Scottish 'touch' spill over the border?

Some of the facts revealed are disturbing: for example, the very high proportion of children living in overcrowded conditions, particularly in certain regions. The gap in educational attainment, already very wide by seven years, between children from different social class groups makes it unlikely that later attempts to provide 'equality of opportunity' will prove very successful. However, other facts, such as the relative normality of some so-called childhood disorders and difficulties, will reassure parents.

In the second follow-up at eleven years points of particular educational interest will include the longer term effects of parental interest, social mobility, home conditions and school factors. Groups of special interest and concern to teachers such as backward readers, poor school attenders and children who have shown marked educational improvement or deterioration will be looked at closely. One of the aims will be to identify possible 'early warning signals' of later difficulty so that preventive action can be taken.

Looking ahead to the third and subsequent follow-ups, what factors are associated with success or failure in secondary schools? Some of the children will proceed to further or higher education. What are the factors which will determine their choice of study? The drift from the physical sciences in recent years is causing concern in some quarters. However, the reasons for this development are largely a matter of guesswork. Can we afford to leave such questions to guesswork, however well informed?

Surely there is a pressing need for some means of monitoring at a national level the effect of different circumstances upon children's health and development. Administrative and professional practices and procedures continue with little reliable information about their effects; and legislation is introduced without any objective means of evaluating its strength and weakness. Although longitudinal studies are not the only vehicles for exploring all such questions, they have potentially a major role to play.* Furthermore, as we have seen, the large-scale national studies, in particular, produce—as a bonus—valuable cross-sectional results as each 'sweep' of the children is completed.

In relation to the total amount of national expenditure in the fields of child welfare, health and education, the amount spent upon any assessment of the effects of major policy decision and the efficacy of existing procedures is totally inadequate. Such assessment, or feedback of information, is clearly necessary not only for those who frame and decide policy but also for those who administer it and those whose task it is to put it into practice.

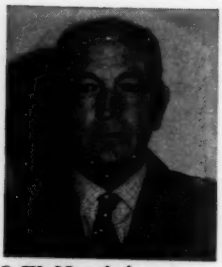
---

* Wall, W. D., and Williams, H. L. (1970). *Longitudinal Studies and the Social Sciences*. Heinemann, London.

What are the schools doing to replace or to reform traditional junior school geography? Recently HM Inspectors carried out a survey of 215 schools widely distributed over England. This article contains some of the observations recorded in the report and some suggestions for the development of geography teaching.

Geography in Junior Schools

J. W. MORRIS



J. W. Morris is Staff Inspector for Geography

In the early 1950's the great majority of junior schools and classes followed a traditional geography syllabus which commonly dealt with children and family life in other lands, 'products' (such as cocoa, oranges, wheat and timber) and an introduction to the British Isles, which generally came in the fourth year. The courses leaned heavily on text-book series, which usually employed the Herbertson 'natural regions' as a framework. A good many schools were making excursions into the neighbourhood and even to places at some distance from the school, though outdoor work was not necessarily linked with the rest of the course. The more imaginative teachers created a good deal of interest in far-off places and the different ways of life of their peoples, using the globe and maps to familiarise children with features which they portrayed. Much of the teaching was bound to the text-book and concerned largely with factual learning. Resources for learning were scanty, and geography was normally allowed about one hour per week on the timetable—often split into two short lessons.

The situation thus described has now almost vanished. The reasons for its abandonment are complex, but the most important factors have been the move towards a less fragmented (that is, a more integrated) school day, a growing emphasis on the incorporation of children's own interests into the learning process, and the supply of attractive books on a wide range of topics which pay little regard to traditional subject boundaries. To abandon a policy which was increasingly giving dissatisfaction to teachers is a negative expression of the change that has occurred.

The findings of our survey suggest that improvements in the geographical education of juniors rests on the following considerations:

There is a need for heads and teachers to clarify their objectives in teaching geography—whether it is taught as a subject or is part of a Combined Studies scheme. If geography is taught through the medium of Combined Studies it should receive an adequate amount of time and attention.

A scheme of work is necessary to ensure that progression is achieved in skills, knowledge and understanding. It may take the form of a check-list of skills, ideas and experiences which should be incorporated in the programme of work.

Outdoor work is a valuable basis for developing vocabulary and a real understanding of many of the elements of which geography is compounded. It should be planned to produce specific results and

should offer training in observation, recording and the use of plans and maps.

The study of distant places should not be neglected. An understanding of the achievements and difficulties of other peoples can do much to counter-balance prejudices which are all too easily formed in young children by the mass media.

The resources for teaching and learning should be used in classrooms as they are needed.

Head teachers should make use of the talents of members of the staff who have a special interest in, and knowledge of, geography in the preparation of schemes of work and in dealing with teaching problems that other teachers may encounter.

Records of work should be kept by the teachers if the subject is to develop progressively through the school. They should concentrate on the skills and concepts that the children have encountered, the degree of success achieved in dealing with them, and the topics of study through which they have been introduced.

Children should be helped, and encouraged to make records of their learning in a variety of ways including writing, sketching, making maps and models, and drawing diagrams and graphs.

Achievements in Geography

Before embarking on an analysis of the factors which contributed to the general levels of achievement in geography in the junior schools and classes visited it may be useful at this stage to summarise, in a somewhat crude statistical form, the inspectors' assessment of the quality of work. These assessments provide a useful background against which the succeeding sections may be read. The assessments are, necessarily, subjective and apply only to the 215 schools visited.

Schools with good achievements in geography	— 14 per cent
Schools with moderately good achievements	— 36 per cent
Schools with low achievements	— 50 per cent

It may be objected that such result indicates that the standards by which achievements were measured were inappropriately high. However the fact is that some 30 schools were able to provide very successful geographical courses for juniors by a variety of approaches, without detriment to other areas of experience, and by applying no more thought and professional skill than was usually displayed in dealing with other parts of the curriculum. As later sections show low achievements are more likely to be the result of confusion about aims in a period of transition, or preoccupation with other more widely publicised issues which result in neglect of geographical education.

Geography and Combined Studies

Only 19 per cent of the schools still retained geography as a separate subject on the timetable. In 61 per cent of the schools geography was completely absorbed in combined studies, which appeared under various names such as environmental studies, projects, topics and social studies. In the schools as a whole this leaves a margin of 20 per cent in which geographical learning, though encompassed in some form of combined studies, still retained a separate identity. In a few schools this was achieved by allocating one term of the year for mainly geographical studies—other terms being devoted to mainly historical and scientific studies respectively. In most cases, geographical work was specified in the programme of combined studies, often

occurring as geographical projects or topics in a succession of activities. This method of dealing with subjects like geography disposes of the limitations imposed by small weekly time allocations and permits fruitful investigations by pupils to be developed and brought to a satisfying conclusion.

How were the levels of achievement distributed among the schools in which geography was taught in these three separate ways?

	Proportion of schools with the following levels of achievement		
	Good	Moderately good	Low
132 schools in which geography was wholly absorbed in combined studies	10%	30%	60%
41 schools in which geography was taught as a separate subject	15%	44%	41%
42 schools in which geography retained its identity in combined studies	27%	45%	28%

The most successful geography was found, not in the schools which taught it as a separately time-tabled subject, but in those schools which gave it recognition as a subject in a combined studies programme. On the other hand the weakest achievement was where geography was wholly absorbed in combined studies.

Time Allocations

The most significant point to emerge from the survey with respect to time allocations was that there is no longer a generally accepted allotment for subjects like geography, history and science or for combined studies. At the one extreme a few schools gave over seven hours a week to combined studies; at the other a few gave little more than 1½ hours. Nearly one-fifth of the schools left it to the discretion of the teachers, and the amount of time varied from one week to another.

Good achievement in geography was certainly not allied to generous time allowances. It was invariably associated with about 1¼ hours a week in a 'straight' geography programme or between two and five hours in a combined studies programme which geography shared with other subjects.

Schemes of Work

'Schemes of work' said one head master 'are out'. He was, on this occasion, referring to geography and combined studies. His views were, apparently, shared by a large number of other heads. No fewer than 92 schools out of 215 (43 per cent) possessed no scheme of work, though, among the smaller schools, seven claimed that for geography a current television series provided an adequate scheme and one that a text-book series offered sufficient guidance.

For the purposes of the survey schools were classified in three groups:

1. those with a good or adequate scheme of work — 84 (39 per cent)
2. those with a poor scheme of work — 39 (18 per cent)
3. those with no scheme of work — 92 (43 per cent)

The characteristics of a good scheme of work—as exemplified by the schools—are that it stated the general objectives which the courses in geography or combined studies were designed to achieve, and translated these into specific objectives and the kinds of learning experiences by which they might be accomplished. In addition it paid attention to the interests of the children and their growing maturity, suggested the kinds of skills and the concepts which should be stressed, and related the direct experience which children might gain in the home area to learning from books and other sources of information. Good schemes of work rarely remained static for long. They were revised from time to time in the light of experience gained in their use. They also afforded room for teachers to exercise individual initiative. Adequate schemes were less penetrating in their analysis of the learning process but they offered a firm framework of guidance for the teachers. All the good schemes and most of the adequate schemes paid attention to the question of progression in learning, though this was often implied in the structure of the scheme rather than explicitly stated.

The poor schemes of work broadly fell into two classes: those which imposed too rigid a control over the teachers; and those which appeared to be little more than a random collection of ideas with no integrating themes or clear objectives. They were uniformly lacking in any statement as to how progression in learning was to be achieved.

Levels of achievement in geography and schemes of work are compared in the following table.

Schemes of Work	Proportion of schools with the following level of achievement		
	Good	Moderately good	Low
Good or adequate (84 schools) ...	32%	45%	23%
Poor (39 schools)	0%	20%	80%
None (92 schools)	3%	37%	60%

One striking fact is that a poor scheme of work was worse than none at all. It stifled the ideas of individual teachers or produced scrappy disjointed work with no sense of purpose.

On the other hand the absence of a school scheme of work did not always imply an absence of planning. The fact that some 34 schools were able to produce moderately good results without a scheme of work could be attributed to two main factors. In most of the schools the teachers included several with a good knowledge of the subject and clear ideas on how it should be taught; though the work varied in quality from class to class it was often purposeful. In seven schools, a television series provided the thread which gave continuity to the work; these were all small schools with only one or two junior classes. The low achievement, however, of the majority of schools in this category suggests that the absence of a scheme of work, or of a satisfactory substitute, predisposes a school to comparative failure.

Outdoor Work

For the purposes of the survey the 215 schools were classified, as to the frequency of outdoor work, into four categories—

53 schools (25 per cent) were frequent outdoor workers, that is on an average the classes went out for several occasions in each term.

77 schools (36 per cent) worked out of doors occasionally—usually once or twice a term for most classes

62 schools (29 per cent) made irregular and infrequent visits out of school.

23 schools (11 per cent) did no outdoor work of any account.

It is a significent feature of junior education that almost 90 per cent of the schools visited regarded outdoor work, in greater or less degree, as a proper part of the educational process.

The relationships between the frequency of outdoor work and achievement in geography are shown in the following table.

Frequency of outdoor work	Proportion of schools with the following achievements in geography		
	Good	Moderately good	Low
Frequent	37%	46%	17%
Occasional	8%	37%	55%
Seldom	5%	29%	66%
None	15%	15%	70%

It should not, however, be inferred that the frequency of outdoor work is the cause of good geography; indeed it may well be that teachers who are well versed in geography are more confident in the management of outdoor work. There were several schools which did no outdoor work but still produced geographical achievement of a high level.

The least profitable forms of outdoor work appeared to be the long excursions which covered a great deal of territory, and the unplanned wanderings in the local environment. The most profitable forms were those concerned with the specific investigations of a relatively small unit of study such as a church, a part of a street, a small farm or a part of a museum. It is also worth recording that a good deal of outdoor work may be concerned with history, or science, or non-geographical topics. Low achievement in geography may be compensated by high achievement in other areas of learning.

Resources for Learning

One of the interesting changes that the survey revealed was the increasing availability of large-scale maps to junior children. They varied from the one-inch Ordnance Survey maps (a difficult series for all but the older children to use), to the 25-inch or 50-inch plans of the school locality. No fewer than 62 per cent of the schools visited had supplies of large-scale maps and plans, but it was not possible to establish, with any degree of certainty, the extent to which they were used. 80 per cent of the schools possessed wall maps, 77 per cent globes, and 73 per cent atlases but many teachers no longer regard them as indispensable aids to learning.

The decline in the use of wall-maps, globes and atlases was closely associated with schemes of work in combined studies which were largely based on the locality, or on topics of a non-geographical nature, or on topics in which the possibility of including geographical elements had not been exploited. There was no evidence that teachers

were avoiding the use of these highly conventionalised forms of representation on the grounds that they were unsuitable for primary schools; on the contrary, many children enjoyed using small-scale maps and, through their use, had gained considerable competence in obtaining information from them.

Mechanical aids, particularly film strip projectors, tape-recorders, radio and television, are to be found in nearly all primary schools today. The survey was concerned not with the presence or absence of such aids but rather with the extent to which they were used in enlarging geographical knowledge and understanding. In 69 per cent of the schools mechanical aids were being used for this purpose, some occasionally and nearly half of them frequently: 25 per cent of all the schools were making regular use of one or more television broadcast series on geography. Planned preparation for the television lessons and subsequent development of the broadcast material by the children and teachers appeared to take place in rather more than half of the schools concerned, but the degree of preparation and follow-up varied so much from school to school that it was difficult to make general statements about the effectiveness of the broadcasts. At one extreme was a handful of schools—seven altogether—which based the whole of their geography on a television series and exploited the material extensively. At the other extreme a few schools used the broadcast lessons in isolation from the rest of the work, confining the follow-up to a brief discussion.

While most schools now possess good stocks of pictures for wall display, only 55 per cent of those visited were making substantial use of them to assist children to imagine more accurately the variety of landscapes and ways of life to be found in Britain and abroad. To some extent they have been replaced by other visual aids, but, as has been suggested, some schools are neglecting the study of distant places, and the wall-picture, designed to allow children to study its features in detail and at some length, is less popular than formerly.

Among the most important sources of learning about geography are class- and school-libraries. It was not easy to distinguish geography books from other kinds of books in primary schools since much of the fiction, and many books of information on a wide range of topics, help to enlarge geographical experience. 32 per cent of the schools were classified as having a good supply of books and 18 per cent a poor supply. The remaining 50 per cent fell between these two categories, that is to say the available books were not so poor as to inhibit the work seriously, nor yet good enough to cater for all the needs of teachers and children.

Only 19 per cent of the schools visited were making use of text-books of geography which claimed to offer a junior school course. Many other schools possessed text-books, but they were used for occasional reference rather than regular reading.

No attempt was made to quantify other resources of learning in geography which occur rather more sporadically. There are schools which have simple surveying instruments, often home made; others have instruments for recording the elements of weather; a few have implements for studying soils. All these were borne in mind when a general assessment was made of the quality and quantity of material resources available to promote geographical teaching. For this purpose

schools were again subjectively classified, as to their teaching resources, into 3 classes—good, moderate or poor—and achievements in geography have been compared with available resources in the following table:

Available resources	Proportion of schools with the following achievements in geography		
	Good	Moderately good	Low
Good — 25% of schools (54 schools)	39%	43%	18%
Moderate — 49% of schools (106 schools)	11%	42%	47%
Poor — 26% of schools (56 schools) ...	0%	17%	83%

The figures suggest that a school, with poor resources for geograpyh has a high chance of low achievements. Nevertheless good resources are no guarantee of good achievements, and a moderately well-equipped school may do good work with its pupils. It is tempting to conclude that, apart from schools with financial problems, poverty of resources may also reflect a negative attitude towards geographical learning on the part of the staff.

Teaching Styles

A record was made of the ways in which teachers conducted their lessons in geography or in combined studies involving geography. The teaching was marked by the variety of methods used. In only eight schools (less than 4 per cent of the sample) was the class lesson delivered by the teacher, the predominant method of communication; and in only two schools was it a common practice to read the text-book 'round the class'.

The class lesson was, however, by no means an unimportant feature. In 81 per cent of the schools it was still used as a means of conveying information, stimulating discussion, or introducing a new topic or theme; it was also used after children had been working in small groups, as a means of communicating to the whole class the results of group-work. But it was nearly always used in conjunction with group and individual work. In the 19 per cent of schools where there was no class teaching geographical achievement was generally poor or only moderate; the only exceptions to this statement were a few small schools in which the classes contained such a wide range of age and ability as to make class-teaching unsuitable.

The virtues of the class lesson appeared to lie largely in the field of organisation. It provided a framework in which group-work or individual studies could be carried out without losing a sense of corporate endeavour in the class. It also ensured that the teacher kept some kind of control over the content of lessons.

At the same time separate tasks for small groups of children (a feature of 80 per cent of the schools) allowed for differences in ability and interest among the children. Only 18 per cent of the schools gave much weight to individual studies and these often interlocked with group studies. Children appeared to work more confidently in groups rather than as individuals, and, from the view-point of the teacher, it

was clearly an advantage to be able to deal with the problems and interests of six or seven groups rather than those of more than 30 individual children.

About 67 per cent of the schools organised a substantial part of their work in geography or combined studies in the form of 'projects' or 'topics', but only six schools used this method exclusively and all with poor results in terms of knowledge and skills. Some of the topics were based on elements in the local scene, such as a church, a farm, a wood, a stream; others were more widely ranging—for example, transport, homes, clothing, forests, or a particular country. Projects of this kind were generally most successful when the teacher had clearly defined learning objectives in mind, but a good many projects were pursued as isolated studies with no planned progression.

Records of Work

As far as geography is concerned the survey revealed a great variety of practice. In 38 of the schools visited (i.e. 18 per cent) no records of any kind were kept by the teachers. In the remaining 177 schools the teachers' records were classified as follows:

> Good records kept a full account of geographical work done, and assessed its value for the children. These were found in 18 schools (i.e. 8 per cent of the sample).
>
> Fairly good records kept an account of geographical work dealt with in terms of knowledge and skills; these were found in 98 schools (i.e. 46 per cent of the sample).
>
> Poor records were merely a brief list of topics and conveyed little of real value to readers other than the teacher who made them. These were found in 61 schools (i.e. 28 per cent of the sample).

The relationships between the quality of teachers' records and pupils' achievement in geography are shown in the following table:

Records kept by Teachers	Proportion of schools in which the level of achievement in geography was:		
	Good	Moderately good	Low
Good (18 schools)	90%	10%	—
Fairly good (98 schools)	14%	54%	32%
Poor (61 schools)	—	15%	85%
None (38 schools)	—	32%	68%

It is not suggested that the teachers' records of work are casually connected with the children's achievements. They tend rather to represent the attitude which teachers adopted towards the subject which may, in turn, reflect their degree of sureness in dealing with it. Teachers' records need to be viewed in relation to the schemes of work; if these are explicit and sufficiently detailed the teachers' records are less important as a means of ensuring continuity of development. Where schemes of work are vague or non-existent good records of work and discussions among teachers may take the place of the scheme of work. The worst of all situations appears to exist when the absence of a scheme of work is combined with no teachers' records or poor records. This combination existed in 60 schools; in 51 of them achievement in geography was rated in the lowest category and none came into the highest category.

Children's Records and Interest

Children's records of work were largely in the form of written accounts, models, maps and pictures. In a small number of schools graphs were to be found. In most schools children kept exercise books for work in geography or combined studies, but they also made records of work on large sheets of paper which were mounted for general display in the classroom. Notes copied from the chalkboard were no longer common. In only two schools was this method of recording widely used. Written work—the commonest form of recording—was a normal part of geographical work in 82 per cent of the schools and children write their own accounts of what they had learned. Models and maps were made by children in 61 per cent of the schools and pictorial records were a regular feature in 54 per cent.

It seemed appropriate to distinguish between the levels of interest which children displayed in geography and the levels of knowledge which they revealed. In a good many schools where the learning experiences were well planned to produce a sense of involvement on the part of the children, the learning objectives were not well enough defined to ensure a corresponding level of achievement. Subjective judgements about the children's levels of interest were used to classify the schools into three categories based on the children's general attitudes to geography:

Schools with a high interest rating — 31 per cent.
Schools with a satisfactory interest rating — 46 per cent.
Schools with a low interest rating — 23 per cent. In these schools children's records were so poor as to be worthless as an indication of the work dealt with.

More than three-quarters of the schools engendered an *interest* in geography which would stand the children in good stead when they transferred to secondary schools, but these figures should be contrasted with the assessment of schools with low achievement recorded at the beginning of this article.

Criteria

What then were the criteria which HM Inspectors used in arriving at these judgments? In the first place there was no hard and fast body of knowledge which was expected of the junior school leaver. It was accepted that the topics, areas and human activities which were dealt with would differ from one school to another according to the locality of the school, the interests of the teachers and the resources for learning. It was also accepted that geographical learning might be encompassed in combined studies. It was, however, expected that the children would:

reveal a steadily increasing vocabulary of the terminology of the subject as it refers to landscapes, weather and climate, natural vegetation and animals and human activities;

become increasingly aware of differences that exist between their own locality and other contrasting localities in Britain;

come to realise, through the study of distant places, that the world contains great variety in its landscapes and climates and that there is great variety in the ways that people come to terms with their environment;

realise that some peoples have greater wealth and technical resources at their command than others to deal with their natural environment.

It was expected that these general aspects of geography would be arrived at through the study of real places, including the home area; and that maps and the globe would be regularly used to locate places in such a way that the children would become acquainted with ideas of distance and direction, and the shapes of land and water masses, and that they would be able to distinguish such surface features as high land, rivers, cities and countries. It was also expected that most of the pupils would be able to use books, maps and pictures as means of learning about distant areas and peoples and that the records which they made would reveal increasing powers of observation and precision as they grew more mature. Finally it was expected that abler pupils would be encouraged to offer explanations for some of the differences and similarities that exist between places and the activities of their peoples.

British primary education still attracts many visitors from all over the world. During 1971 an educational psychologist from America visited schools in several areas of the UK and wrote in an American journal about what he found. We summarise some of his general reflections and reproduce his views on two controversial issues in primary education.*

A Look-in at the Primary School

Edward Chittenden, of the Education Testing Service, Princeton, is as one might expect a perceptive observer. He is primarily interested in informal patterns of education and what brings them into existence; he wants to know what a teacher actually *does* to promote learning when a particular pattern of working has been adopted. It seems good judgement to focus attention first on the promotion (and release) of the creative capacity of teachers. What interests him most about English primary schools is the means by which they try to realise that objective. 'Visits to these schools', he records 'made me much more conscious of the fact that we so often think of a school only as a setting for children's growth when, in reality, as a place for learning it can profoundly affect teachers' development'. He attributes the changes of direction towards more open, more individualised and more informal teaching situations in equal parts to teacher enthusiasm and professional leadership. He notes the 'unhurried, unfrantic quality' of the schools' life, the absence of bells and buzzers and the tendency for work to go on all over the place and not just in classrooms. He formed a respect for the guiding hand of primary heads, their approachability and knowledge of individual children. He noted their tendency to encourage teachers to develop methods which they themselves could evaluate in the light of their own experience rather than by reference to outside standards or prescriptions.

Size of School

It is basic to the English way of working that the primary schools should be relatively small communities. This seems to become another factor promoting the confidence and creative attainment of the teachers. Mr. Chittenden sums this up admirably, finding that in the average school 'the head can work with a staff of ten in ways which involve him primarily in educational matters; only a small proportion of his time needs to be devoted to administrative paper-work. Heads often organise and lead field trips, fill in temporarily for teachers who need to be away for a few hours, and take on special projects with small groups—carpentry, the study of rocks, etc. Staff communication is simple; the lengthy announcements, bulletins, staff meetings, and intercom messages which characterise many

* *Outlook*, the journal of the Mountain View Centre for Environmental Education, Boulder, Colorado, USA.

American schools are noticeable by their absence in English schools. The head gets out of his office and into the classrooms; he knows what is going on in his school, and he holds himself accountable just as he holds his teachers accountable. In a school of manageable size the head can devote most of his energies to working directly on the most important matters—staff development and the education of the pupils'.

Responsibility and Initiative

Mr. Chittenden was more struck by the responsibility shown by children than by their initiative. Thus he instances such things as children clearing up classrooms and taking care of animals; but when he recorded interviews with the children he was surprised to find that few asked such questions as 'Where did you get that machine?' or 'Why are you asking these questions?' This gives him the impression that our teachers have more difficulty in stimulating children to come up with original, unexpected lines of enquiry than would be the case in similar types of American schools. With us, he suggests, the patterns of social inter-action between teacher and child are more codified, 'the roles of adult and child more clearly defined'. On the positive side this means that schools can establish working relationships more readily; 'on the negative side, these more defined patterns may mean fewer options for the child'. Nevertheless, his impression of classroom relations is gratifying. 'Not much teacher time was spent on scoldings, moralistic lectures or punishments. A well-placed word or two from the teacher or from another child seemed to suffice. Whereas teachers in the United States have to forbid disruptive behaviour, these English teachers didn't even expect it. They were firm and consistent to varying degrees; they were willing to listen to children but not to argue with them'.

By comparison with the USA we need not be much concerned with children's behaviour and it may be that another of our anxieties—that over reading standards—may be exaggerated. At any rate Mr. Chittenden's comments on this are worth noting—

'When the children enter junior school, at about seven, most of them are reading to some extent, and many are well past the beginning reader phase. It seemed to me that this helped free the first and second-year junior teachers from some of the anxiety about reading that is so prevalent in American primary grades; the English junior school teacher may feel freer to experiment with approaches to the teaching of reading. Books of all sorts were in evidence and very much used, displayed on tables or placed in easily accessible book racks in classrooms and corridors. 'Basal readers', so dominant in American schools, were not noticeable. I certainly never saw twenty or thirty copies of the same book in a classroom. Many teachers, however, did use a series of books (colour-coded or otherwise marked for level of difficulty) which children read individually and in small groups on occasion. There were often magazines, newspapers, and the children's homemade books in the classrooms'.

Controversial Issues

There were, however, two outstanding issues over which Mr. Chittenden sensed some real anxiety (also some real enthusiasm) amongst the teachers he met. The terms he uses to describe them are 'teaming'

and 'open space'. On both these questions his report has searching and also encouraging implications which must be quoted in full.

Teaming

'In many schools staff members were exploring ways in which they could usefully interact with one another, in an effort to loosen the boundaries of the self-contained classroom. Shared corridor areas and shared trips had been a start in this direction, but teachers were trying other forms of co-operation. In two schools visited a teacher without a class took on the role of floating teacher for a year, with the opportunity to develop projects of her own the next year and someone else would take on the floating assignment. Various ways of swapping pupils for different activities were being tried out. Although a great many qualifications were offered and a variety of warnings were sounded, teamwork among teachers was generally considered to be a good thing, something that should be fostered. Two points were frequently made: (1) Co-operative teaching must be built upon the initiative and planning of those who are actually going to be involved in it. Otherwise it becomes a gimmick, with little to recommend it. In some instances, particularly with inexperienced teachers, the heads felt that teaming (they tend to avoid the phrase 'team teaching' as having too many extraneous connotations) should not be pushed. Teachers, they argued, need to discover and consolidate their own capabilities. They are better off working in loose confederation. With experienced staffs, however, the opinion was that the encouragement of teaming could pay more immediate dividends. Older teachers, with more established approaches, could perhaps be jostled a bit through the experience of accommodating their ways to those of others. (2) It was also stressed that the purpose of co-operative teaching is as much to stimulate teachers' professional growth as it is to spread the resources of the staff. Thus, it might start out with 'I'll do-maths-and-you-do-music', but ideally it should serve to bring mathematics and music together, not to compartmentalise them, just as it should bring the staff together, not promote specialisation'.

Open Space

'A second topic of considerable interest to English educators had to do with the physical layout of the school building. How do furniture, walls, spaces, affect the interaction of children and teachers? Four of the newer schools I visited had been constructed with such concerns in mind. In some of the other schools internal modifications, such as knocking down some of the walls, had been undertaken. One pattern involved the use of three-walled classrooms, the fourth side of which opened onto a large work area which was shared by several classes. This design was felt to be a have-cake-and-eat-it plan, as it could be adapted to both the self-contained and the sharing styles of teaching. Another plan emphasised flexibility by making use of movable partitions. Still another dispensed with corridors altogether and simply connected one room directly to another—with the disadvantage that some of the rooms served as major thoroughfares.

I have mixed feelings about the success of some of the newer open plan designs. Often, I was quite aware that the staff had to contend with someone's predetermined model of what the ebb and flow of the inhabitants of the building *ought* to be. (Admittedly, old-fashioned

buildings can be just as dictatorial.) The most successful arrangement seemed to be the four-walled room with a movable partition in one wall for flexibility, combined with enlarged corridors. This plan combines some sense of territory with the possibility of interaction. Junior school children (more so than infants?) seem to like some sense of territory in a school. More important, I also had the impression that the most creative teachers, the ones who have considerable thought to their work, were the clearest in their territorial imperatives. It seems obvious that efforts toward teaming and opening up space will need to contend with that fact. For instance, I recall two quite imaginative teachers who shared some common space working alongside each other at times but at other times working within their own room with their own class. Their pattern was one of friendly rivalry and stimulation; they certainly did not constitute interchangeable parts of a team.

In summary, the interest in teaming and open plan in the schools I visited seemed to have evolved naturally out of earlier efforts to develop less formal programs. It may be that when teachers begin to work with children in more open ways they quite naturally start to consider both the physical environment and their colleagues as part of the resources for their own and the children's development. In the United States a different pattern for the evolution of educational practice is sometimes advocated; open space and/or team teaching may be promoted as the forerunner, instead of being seen as an extension, of open education'.

One of the fastest expanding areas of education in recent years has been out-of-school activities. This article discusses the value of such activities and points out some of the hazards.

Outdoor Education

R. O. HOPKINS

R. O. Hopkins is an HMI who specialises in Outdoor Activities

New terms in education, like the developments they stand for, gain currency slowly. Usually they represent only a small part of the vocabulary of the teaching profession and the developments a still smaller part of its practice. Sometimes the terms are insufficiently understood and come to be attached to practices widely different from the original ones. Sometimes they lead to modifications of existing practices. Seldom is there a steady advance in teaching methods based on a wide acceptance of new developments. This is true of the term 'outdoor education'. For some years a variety of terms such as field studies, field work, environmental studies and local studies have gained currency and represent in varying degrees the practices of giving pupils an opportunity of experiencing and interpreting phenomena in the physical and human landscape around them. Another group of terms, of which 'outdoor pursuits' is the most common, represent the physical and recreational elements.

The term 'outdoor education' is new. It is being used by those who wish to unify the numerous and diverse activities which go on outside the school. Until recently these activities constituted a relatively insignificant part of the curriculum. Leisure and recreation were expected to take place in out of school time, at weekends or in holidays. While it was recognised that pupils would show unaccustomed energy and enthusiasm for these marginal activities, there was no time for them in the school day.

Two factors tended to change the situation: first the gradually increasing demand for field work to support and enrich the academic disciplines of geography, geology, botany and zoology. Most of the early work was undertaken in large groups led by the specialist teacher, either in the school environment or within a day's journey. The necessity to visit areas beyond this called for residential centres. At first those controlled by the Field Studies Council satisfied the need, but soon the demand outstripped their resources and LEAs and some voluntary bodies began to open field centres. The Youth Hostel Association adapted a number of its hostels for field work and adjusted its rules accordingly. Secondly, the value of leisure pursuits such as canoeing and sailing, mountaineering and rock climbing, caving and ski-ing, long recognised for their recreational value, were seen to have considerable educational potential also. Residential centres in areas offering facilities for such pursuits were rapidly established, and there are now more than two hundred owned by LEAs and voluntary bodies. Many small centres have been established by individual schools and youth groups, in remote cottages, disused railway stations and old school buildings.

Some centres increase their accommodation by using tents. Many schools and youth groups camp without the support of a centre, using their own equipment or borrowing from central stores. Whether camping is regarded in itself as an outdoor pursuit, or whether it serves the needs of other pursuits or field studies, it greatly increases the number of those who spend a period of up to a week or ten days of residential education.* No accurate or closely approximate figure is available for the number of young people involved, but it must exceed 500,000 annually. Moreover the trend is rapidly increasing and the resources of some local authorities are already taxed. Tomorrow the demands of a generation brought up with a taste for the outdoors could overwhelm them.

It was natural that the two elements in outdoor activities should develop separately, since they grew from sections of the curriculum which were thought to be different in kind. It is now being accepted increasingly that if education is to be greater than the sum of its parts, those parts must contribute more than subject content. It is here that outdoor education has its most important part to play. When subject disciplines deal exclusively in textbooks and examinations they tend to become remote and academic to a majority of pupils even when they have the ability and persistence to achieve satisfactory results. To those lacking the ability they become a source of boredom and frustration.

It could be that this boredom is the cause of many of the serious problems which beset schools from the third year onwards and which are later manifest in teenage unrest and anti-social behaviour, especially when the infection is aggravated by repetitive and undemanding daily work. Boredom results from lack of motivation and frustration from lack of success. Both are functions of a classroom situation where inward looking routines predominate. The use of the environment often provides the variety and sense of purpose needed to dispel them.

Use of the Environment

The local environment is of decisive importance to the young child. Before he even attends school it is the source of much of his learnings. He acquires knowledge of streets, alleys, streams, culverts, trees, parks, ponds, canals and railways, largely because they affect him as sources of pleasure, pain, danger or prohibition. He learns, subconsciously, his own limitations in walking, running, jumping and climbing. As he grows older, his knowledge widens, his capabilities extend, his attitudes change, but the centrality of his environment remains. The alternatives are to leave it there, a separate, out of school world, or to use it with discrimination to enlarge his knowledge, help him to know and extend his physical relationships with it, and to influence and mould his attitudes through it. Above all, to extract from it standards of judgement against which to measure the wider world, nationally and abroad. In using the environment in this way opportunities arise naturally for children to develop a sense of responsibility. They are expected to work in small groups, unsupervised, to observe a strict time schedule of departure and return and to collect and record information.

---

* See *Camping*, Education Pamphlet No. 58 (HMSO).

This method of working is seen by many teachers to be fundamental. They may, indeed must, plan routes and field work objectives, with great care and precision; they must visualise all possible dangers and build-in safety precautions, but they must not remove all sense of challenge and adventure, or seem to mistrust the behaviour of the group. They must see the follow-up in terms of recorded work and how it fits into the pattern of their syllabus. Those who have experience of such methods will provide abundant evidence of their success, not only in the amount and quality of work which results, but in the responsible behaviour of pupils engaged in the field work. Close and detailed attention to planning and to safety precautions are the teacher's prime responsibilities.*

Patterns of Activity

As evidence derived from successful practices accumulates, the pattern of progressive outdoor education begins to emerge. In the first two or three years courses will probably have a cross disciplinary content, and a mixed ability organisation. Outdoor work will be integrated with preparation and follow-up in the classroom, and various subject specialists all contribute.

Probably the first stage will be the investigation of physical and human phenomena in the home environment. This will involve at first short distances of no more than five or six miles from school, but the planning of routes, the timings of journeys, the observation of safety rules will be as important as the field work to be achieved. The systematic order of elements to be studied will not be as significant as the grading of work to suit the varying abilities within groups.

The second stage will be a widening and deepening of the first; greater distances, longer times and a more exacting study of both new phenomena and some already investigated at a simple level; a greater use of resource materials in school and a wider acquaintance with problem solving.

A period of residence away from home, in a hostel or camping, will be accepted as an essential element in the progression. In addition to the value of a new environment and the opportunity to carry forward comparative studies, there will be formative value in living in a close community, of experiencing situations which call for initiative and self reliance.

Alongside all the activities mentioned above, will go the acquisition of skills likely to promote long term leisure pursuits. Obvious ones are canoeing, sailing, swimming, hill climbing, camping, fishing. Associated with such pursuits are substantial studies, often neglected, and offering valuable links with formal disciplines: measurements of current flow in relation to slope of river bed, the effect of the dip of rocks in producing rapids and waterfalls, the mechanism and feeder systems of canal locks are all of obvious interest to canoeists; wind pressure on area of sail, stability as a function of design in dinghies, the Beaufort scale and the nature of an aneroid barometer are only a few of the possible topics likely to stimulate work with a sailing club; the relative heating values of stove fuels, the behaviour of stoves with

---

* Editor's note: Attention is drawn to the guidance given in the forthcoming Education Pamphlet *Safety in Mountains and Outdoor Activities*.

increasing height, dietary matters of importance in menu planning, the qualities of lightweight tent materials in relation to weight and condensation are all matters linked with the efficiency and indeed the safety of camping; the behaviour of different species of fish, in feeding habits, breeding, reactions to water temperature, surface wind, intensity of light are studies capable of providing anglers with simple research projects.

The progressive development of the skills outlined above in a basic course would make it possible to extend the scope of outdoor work in the later years of secondary education without hindrance to pupils' examination objectives. Moreover the growth of responsible attitudes to work should strengthen not weaken the position of subject disciplines. There is mounting evidence that the kind of experiences involved in outdoor education tend to establish positive attitudes, especially in those whose continuing lack of success in formal classroom subjects has been the cause of apathy and rejection of school. Most grammar schools have endured the problem of pupils whose performances steadily deteriorated from the second or third year. An injection of outdoor work would often have arrested this process.

Clearly most sixth form pupils should have at least one activity which they pursued if only as a correction to an over-academic programme. There is nothing new in this except that the nature of the activities will change. A well known boys' school in the north of England, with a distinguished record of university entrance has already moved in this direction. While team games still hold an important place, boys are given an opportunity at an early stage of opting for other pursuits, with the result that at sixth form level there are as many as eighteen activities available. No physical education department could sustain such a programme and more than half the staff contribute personal expertise and interests. The gains in personal relationships are seen as outweighing any losses of subject time.

The educational values of the sort of activities sponsored by Scouting, the Outward Bound Trust and the Duke of Edinburgh Award have been widely recognised. Unfortunately these pursuits have appealed mainly to boys and girls whose social and educational experiences have been successful. It seems likely that the preparatory work of a basic course would encourage very much larger numbers to engage in these activities as they entered the later years of school life. There is everything to be said for exposing boys and girls to situations which demand endurance and even a measure of hardship, but if the experience is to have educational value for most it must be supported by previously acquired skills and techniques.

If the exponents of outdoor education have a major contribution to make to the present re-structuring of secondary education it is to suggest that the traditional restrictions of timetable and syllabus content are less fundamental than they have always appeared in achieving an organisation in which the individual is the proper unit and not the class or the year or the house or the team; that new terms, new forms of organisation are less important than the re-orientation of existing ones; that the process of re-orientation is not so radical as many teachers believe; that if the process were to be codified it would only be necessary to put together the best of current practices, now well established in many schools.

Such a codification might include:

1. The loosening of the constraining effects of the fully specialised curriculum, in the first two or three years of secondary education.
2. The use of the environment, local and remote, to provide source material for processing in school.
3. A mixed ability organisation within the groups working on the environment with grading of work in the processing stages to ensure maximum output and high standards.
4. The introduction of leisure pursuits or the skills leading to them, designed to develop associated studies in the classroom.
5. The avoidance, at all costs, of persistently confronting individuals with the experience of failure.

The results of such a re-orientation could produce changes of attitude to work, to human relationships, to social problems; in fact the promise of a mature adult society.

Art in General Education

1. Changes in the Arts

ANEURIN M. THOMAS

2. Work in Schools

T. C. KEAY

A recent HMI survey records the opinion that 'Art does not enjoy an unchallenged status as do some other subjects in the upper forms of secondary schools and it is possible that no other subject depends so much on the skill, personality and interests of the teacher'. Art teachers are both students and practitioners in the arts. Their angle of vision, their perception of social questions, their outlook on education are all influenced by their experiences as students and artists. The most formative of these experiences is probably the rate at which change is now taking place—in the arts themselves and in the relationship between the arts and society. This question of the 'new' arts is highly relevant to the place of art in education, particularly at secondary level where most specialist art teachers are employed. We are pleased therefore to produce below a brief account, abridged from a much longer article, in which the sources of new activities in the arts are clarified and their characteristics described. Mr. Thomas further suggests reasons why the organisation of courses in schools should change. He looks forward to a time when the arts are no longer regarded as 'a separate part of a fragmented school time-table'.*

The second article is based on a recent paper prepared by the HMI committee concerned with art in schools, of which Mr. Keay is Chairman. It seeks to explore certain ways in which art teaching can be incorporated into general studies programmes designed for older pupils in secondary schools. Such developments do not in themselves resolve the wider problems which are indicated by Mr. Thomas, but they do suggest that fresh thinking about the contribution of the arts to general education is needed.

1. Changes in the Arts

The foundations of much that now features in art education were laid as long as 50 years ago. In a period of rapid social and political change it is not surprising that drastic changes should also have occurred in the arts. Art products and practices are today very radically different from what they were, and though they may be confusing in almost every respect it is wrong to assume that such changes are either unhealthy or unproductive of good art.

We are today trying to resolve new kinds of social problems, produced by revolutionary change in technology and in communication, by population pressure and the growth of many kinds of large-scale organisation. Traditional values of all kinds, and these include values in art, are questioned and often found to be no longer appropriate to our changing situation. Society is in process of revising its expectation of the arts. The arts themselves have obtained access to technological

Aneurin M. Thomas is Secretary of the Welsh Arts Council

* Education Survey No. 11 *Art in Schools*. HMSO (1971).

hardware and have improved and simplified the techniques used in the handling of traditional and new materials. It is possible that the change in sensibility provoked by all these pressures and developments may be as dramatic and far-reaching in its consequences as that which culminated in the romantic revolution of the late 18th and early 19th centuries.

The romantic revolution led to arts which were 'unbridled expression of passions', to works preoccupied with autobiography and personal idiosyncrasies; it produced self-centred, pessimistic art restricted to the present moment (or the past) which contrasted sharply with the long-term, optimistic views of science. The world is much richer for the arts created by this major change in sensibility, but by transferring emphasis from the works made by artists to the artists themselves it has brought us to the point where it is now seriously argued that 'anybody's an artist who says he's an artist'—a logical extension of the original thesis. This is by no means as senseless a proposition as it sounds, nor is it without social significance. The emancipation of the artist and, consequently, the arts is coincidental with a larger amount of personal freedom within the 'extension of democracy', so much so that many now deplore excesses in the arts and the excessive claims of young people.

But, 'It is not the young who have created the present crises of confidence', writes Gordon Hyde, 'but the failure of our institutions to keep pace with real biological and psychological evolution. It has been all too easy to do as many people have done, believe that you incorporate the hardware and the techniques produced by the new knowledge and ignore the implications of the knowledge itself. We are not, as many people have suggested, facing just another phase of the industrial revolution, but a fundamental change in the human psyche and its motivations. In the next decade or so, therefore, we not only have to cope with new devices and techniques that may have a good or bad effect on our physical environment and with the vast burden of human and material problems bequeathed us by the bad management of the past; we also have to construe a future environment in terms of the expectations and motivations of people vastly different in outlook from the majority of people of the present and previous times'.

The increasing use of technological hardware in the arts and the inevitable, large-scale influence of technology on the arts are placing increasing pressures on a secondary and higher educational system designed to segregate them. Occasional, short-range attempts to create new alignments are not adequate compensation for what is essentially a fundamental error in the educational system itself. Some of the efforts now being made to introduce inter-disciplinary poly-technical courses cannot succeed unless there is a much wider recognition that the organisation of art and science courses in schools must change.

The New Arts

But, what of the 'expectations and motivations of people who are vastly different in outlook from the majority of people of the present times?' Some insight into the arts expectations and artistic motivations of future people may be got from, firstly an analysis of the characteristics of recent arts and, secondly, a description of the main categories of new arts.

Edward Lucie-Smith believes that the characteristic art of the fifties and sixties is, in many important respects, easier to understand (and easier to fit into our total picture of society) if we think of it as providing services rather than goods.

The distinction between 'goods' and 'services' is clearly understood but as a new experience in the arts, it is not so well recognised. Another description of the change was given by Lord Boyle speaking in the debate on grants for the arts (February 1970). Having said, 'if one is seriously interested in the arts, the contemporary arts must be, I should have thought, an integral part of that interest', he then drew attention to the so-called 'new activities' in the arts which he grouped under four heads:

(i) activities which do not fit into any recognised tradition that is well understood
(ii) activities which are ephemeral and without an end-product
(iii) activities which cross frontiers between different kinds of art
(iv) activities which are concerned with participation.

Examples of activities which fit into any one or combinations of these headings abound. 'Performance' rather than durable 'end product' has been characteristic of many traditional arts and the blending of 'performance' and 'audience' but a short further step. The next stage—audiences contributing to a spontaneously developing performing work of art is both practical and tenable. A growing reliance on various audio/visual technical aids to control and improve the quality of these situations is very much in keeping with the nature of the enterprise. Hence, the claim for this kind of activity 'it is here where theory and practice are vitally fused', and 'there is no time lag between inception and presentation of new ideas'. Compared with the previously segregated arts and their respective well defined procedures, this is radical change with extensive artistic and social implications.

The breakdown of the barriers which traditionally divided the arts has been accelerated by film and television as popular and exclusive art forms. Symbiotic art—the product of transducers and electronic systems which convert light into sound and sound into light—is an art which combines two old artistic ingredients in a new way and opens many new frontiers to artistic expression. Sound and light are highly convenient constituents with which to make artistic products. Both can be created in measurable quantities from modest equipment. Capable of being exploited by artists in new ways, symbiotic art becomes restricted if it has to conform to the traditional aesthetics of music and visual arts. The sciences do not respect constriction, why, therefore, should the arts? The recent changes are mostly the work of groups of people whose communal experiments frequently have the characteristics of 'performances' rather than 'end products'. Some of them have begun to provide, in different ways, a community service based on the contemporary arts.

By providing a 'service', such new art activities attempt to reduce exclusiveness in the arts and remove many of the accepted boundaries of individual traditional arts—e.g. performers/audience, creation/representation, art/technology, professionals/amateurs. In so doing, they re-introduce a social content into the arts with the express purpose of creating a more harmonious physical and social environment, more in accord, as they see it, with the expectations and motivations of future people.

It would be wrong to presume that these new activities are intended to displace the traditional arts entirely. There are, clearly, good reasons why all that is artistically valuable in earlier periods in history should be preserved—to be exhibited in museums or re-presented regularly in concert halls, theatres or opera houses. There can be no doubt that not all future artists will be committed to experimentation or refrain from practising idiosyncratic arts. Arts based on past modes will be preferred by some artists and many audiences. The new arts appear, however, to be very close to some contemporary educational trends—inter-disciplinary, socially orientated, very mindful of the need for an improved human and physical environment, while traditional arts remain preoccupied with individual expression and the acquisition of personal skills for that purpose. Changes in the arts seem to demand that education for the arts cannot and should not be a separate part of a fragmented school time-table. The discoveries and the equipment of science must be just as accessible as the usual appliances of the arts. The teaching of both subjects must be related.

2. Work in Schools

T. C. Keay
is Staff Inspector for Art

In terms of studios, equipment and the number of art teachers involved post-war advances have been considerable. End products in terms of the artefacts made—paintings, sculpture and craftwork—have developed to impressive standards. Even so it is primarily true that the full educational potential of the subject is not understood by many educationalists or accepted by the general public. A pupil in the upper forms of a secondary school who has ability in the 'academic' subjects is likely to face opposition and discouragement from both teachers and parents if he or she expresses a desire to follow a career in art. The wide range of activities and studies which can be found in the subject called 'art' are rarely appreciated. Its diversity and at times intangibility tends to obstruct recognition of its place in an educational structure based largely on the concept that intellectual qualities can only be expressed and developed in verbal or abstract mathematical or scientific terms. The intellectual element involved in the solving of problems of design or the expression of ideas in visual forms has been greatly underrated with the result that practical activities tend to be a staple part of the educational diet of only the less able pupils.

A study of the work of successful art teachers shows that their major objectives are the development of visual perception, skills in observation and informed judgment. Their teaching is designed to achieve these aims largely through work in the visual and plastic arts, offering important intellectual, emotive and constructional experiences as well as intuitive and imaginative ones. But through the systems of options which obtain in the majority of secondary schools, most of the more able pupils are denied any further formal contact with art departments after they reach the age of 14 years.

This is a substantial loss both in respect of individual needs and social good. To what extent can it be repaired by post 'O' level or CSE general studies programmes? If the awakening and development of visual sensitivity is the prime objective, it is doubtful whether a

wholly verbalised or passive course on architecture, town-planning, landscape or the history of art is likely to be satisfactory. Practical experience which emphasises those visual qualities forming the basic language of art is needed. Qualities of line, tone, texture, colour and shape; spatial relationships, rhythm, pattern and structure, all need to be studied and experienced in order to develop the skills of observation which are necessary in an analysis and assessment of the environment. Practical work in a scheme of general studies need not follow the traditional pattern and methods used in painting and sculpture. The creative techniques used in photography may play an important part as may the imaginative use of visual and aural aids. Art in this wider sense which includes industrial and commercial design and the visual language of the mass media is inextricably woven with technological, social and economic factors. Programmes concerned with the natural and man-made environment can provide lines of enquiry and develop understanding not only in relation to the sciences and mathematics but also to design, sculpture and architecture.

In a period of rapid environmental change it is necessary to examine the past in order to understand the present and plan for the future. Some study of the history of art, architecture and design is therefore desirable in a general studies course. Such studies however can be made more relevant and can be mutually re-inforced if the local environment is used and the course linked with other subjects.

A factor not usually associated with the art curriculum is that the making of an artefact or construction involves both reasoning and inventiveness. In some art departments where older pupils are given the opportunity to solve problems in visual and concrete terms inventiveness and ingenuity are often in evidence. It is regrettable, therefore, that in many general studies courses for the 6th form, practical work is seen merely as a therapeutic antidote to what is otherwise a largely bookish diet. In fact practical work can be extremely demanding and rewarding, if planned as an integral part of a well designed programme.

Content of Courses

In designing a suitable course the art teacher will be influenced by a number of educational considerations and problems of organisation. The practical facilities available will determine the nature of the programme but although concessions will be necessary to produce a reasonable working situation the first consideration should be one of educational viability. The role of personal creativity in the development of the individual, his relationship with society, the education of his emotions and the presentation of moral and ethical precepts through art will require consideration. An initial link with other disciplines may prove an effective means of involving students in unfamiliar activities. Ideally a variety of studio space with facilities for a complete range of practical activities should be available to those pursuing a general studies course.

The programme might consist of regular short group periods or it might be a longer weekly session in which the student could carry out more intensive work but perhaps only over a term. The latter method works well with a team of staff acting as guides and mentors in a cross disciplinary approach to a theme such as aggression, social tension or the effect of environment on animals.

Practical work in the studios is of extreme importance as it is in the actual use of the media of visual art that the artist canalises and develops his personal feelings. This is rarely effected by merely leaving the pupil alone with suitable materials and his own thoughts. It is more likely that a prepared programme of close observation and analysis designed to develop awareness and increase confidence will be more effective for the majority. The assignment-card method frequently used in primary schools or the programme learning system both suggest ways in which such a scheme of work might operate. There is much to be said for a course in the visual and tactile language of surface, mass, colour, shape, pattern etc. provided it does not impose artificial limits and so inhibit the creativity it is meant to inspire. This method of familiarising the student with a basic visual 'grammar' has proved of great value. If carefully prepared with a fully explanatory brief for each problem it can provide the base from which complex work on perception and relationships can evolve or mathematical and scientific links can be exploited. The spatial experience of relating masses, the importance of voids as well as solids, the relationships within and between the forms and the impact of their shape on the observer, the way in which the impact changes from an externally observed sculpture to an architectural entity where the observer moves inside it; all these real, not verbal, experiences will be necessary for the discerning citizen as well as the future planner.

Much of the work of the foundation course relies on the important concept of the sequence of ideas. Film making plays an important part in developing this ability either by relating ideas in a sequence that speaks for itself or with a social or political commentary in addition. The films '*Link*' by Derek Boshier and '*Vertical*' by David Hall both illustrate this point.* The use of film animation can include direct drawing on black film or the more time consuming technique of photography. Norman McLaren has indicated what can be done in this direction.

A course largely in the area of graphics, using many of the available techniques from transfer lettering and silk screen printing to CCTV and film making, could be mounted to develop the understanding of the possibilities and the power of mass media in communication. This course would link many subjects and would best be staffed by an inter-disciplinary team. The printmaking may not involve teachers other than those in the art department, but this aspect of work might be split into parts with surface exploration and the making of textural marks either taking place in a basic visual course or as a prelude to film or slide making. The team work would operate more with the work with film, photography, advertising or CCTV.

Whilst the graphic areas of etching, lithography, blockprinting, screen printing may prove to be a vehicle for personal work, the film work is likely to be popular and relevant to current imagery and means of communication.

Design Education has in the immediate past meant the education of the consumer to make him critical and knowledgeable about advertising, packaging and market products such as, for example, furniture,

* Films made for the Arts Council of GB 1970 and distributed by British Film Institute.

light fittings, textiles or cutlery. Design appreciation lectures however, as a means of attaining this end, have generally proved to be inadequate. As in talks about art appreciation the facts presented are tightly related to known, sometimes classic, examples of the genre but the knowledge attained is specific and in most cases not transferable except in examples of a similar kind and of a comparable time. The principles which caused these products to appear in their particular form were rarely understood, but currently design education is developing as an activity which in a problem solving approach consciously explores design principles through the handling of wood, metal, plastics and other materials in the school art and handicraft rooms.

The history of art also can provide many resources for enquiry into men's activities and achievements. The artist's work keeps us in contact with other places and other times. An understanding of what it communicates depends on our capacity to respond, and this ability can, as in other spheres, be developed. An example to quote would be Mary Tregear on Chinese ceramics.* 'Everyone can enjoy the qualities of shape, texture and colour of glaze. The strength and vitality of the decoration, and with it the exquisite workmanship associated with Chinese craftsmanship, speak for themselves. But the ceramic skills of China are the product of such a long and vital tradition, and have so many times led the way for potters all over the world, that some general knowledge of the development of techniques and the variety of styles will enrich an appreciation of much of the world's pottery and porcelain'. This is an approach which opens up the subject of art history to all comers. It is, in fact, in visits to museums, art galleries and places of architectural significance that the surest contact with the reality of the subject may be obtained.

Reference to the elements of many other subjects is essential if learning through and about art is to be both profound and rewarding. In the past a great deal of valuable inter-disciplinary work has been done by the single senior art teacher frequently teaching in isolation from his colleagues though not without reference to them. For example no successful study of architecture could take place without constant historical, social and economical reference. The art teacher acquires, often at considerable depth, the knowledge necessary to meet such demands whether originated by an examination or by his participation in a general studies course.

For the art teacher to learn all that is required for this wider concept of education, as well as to keep up to date and proficient in the practical aspects of art, is a heavy load. In most secondary schools there have been specialist teachers to cover the range but in the past communication between the art and other teachers has not been as fertile as it might. The present trend towards larger schools brings with it the bonus of larger staffs and the possibility of organised inter-disciplinary channels of communication being established.

Expression and study through visual forms is so natural that it is difficult to devise a thematic study to which art could not make an essential contribution. Depending on the approach the visual theoretical study or practical end production may exist as separate entities

---

* *Guide to the Chinese Ceramics in the Department of Eastern Art*, Ashmolean Museum 1966.

or may be fragments in a multi-disciplinary project. Whatever course results it is difficult to conceive a valid general studies programme which does not allow for art to take its significant role integrated with or alongside other subjects. In this art is an equal partner making its own characteristic and positive contribution. To relegate art to a servicing or simple illustrative agency is to fail to comprehend its potential.

Since 1969 Northcliffe High School, a comprehensive school in Conisbrough, Yorkshire (see Trends 25) has operated an exchange scheme with Dartington Hall, a progressive public school in Devon. Pupils from Northcliffe attend the sixth form at Dartington for two years; fourth and fifth year pupils make shorter visits there.
Dartington Hall has established an annex in Conisbrough where its pupils stay while at Northcliffe, and which the maintained school also uses for tutorial groups.

Public, Private and Progressive*

Dartington Hall is an independent boarding-school of 345 at Totnes in Devon. The school is co-educational; its uniform is whatever happens to be the fashion of the moment. The school has no badge, no motto, no prefects, no head boy or girl, no captain of games. Its fees are in the neighbourhood of £950 p.a.
The headmaster of Dartington Hall is Dr. Royston Lambert; he is Roy to all the pupils without exception.

TRENDS: *Before we talk about the form that your links with Northcliffe High School actually take perhaps you would like to say how, out of six thousand secondary schools in England and Wales, this particular one came to be chosen.*

R.L.: When the scheme was being thought about we tried several authorities. One large one was interested but wanted the exchange to be with all eleven of its comprehensive schools. That meant having a relationship between our 300 children and 12,000 in the city. It just wasn't on. We tried various other places and then, through a friend of mine, Mike Harvey who is head of the *epa* scheme in Denaby, we got in touch with Arthur Young through Sir Alec Clegg, the head of Northcliffe. We went up to Conisbrough and the same day found a house suitable for use as an annex—we moved in even before we bought it!

TRENDS: *So there was no element of selection really, chance played a major part.*

R.L.: We were influenced a bit by the fact that the founders of the Dartington Hall Trust, the Elmhirsts, come from Yorkshire. Also Sir Alec Clegg and his committee readily gave their blessing to the idea. They could see that it would only work if you had a one-for-one link; this meant positive discrimination but there really is no other way if anything meaningful is to be achieved.

TRENDS: *But Arthur Young's school was the kind of place you had in mind?*

* This is an edited version of a tape-recorded discussion between Dr. Lambert and Martyn Clémans, the Executive Editor of *Trends*.

R.L.: I think some of the staff here wanted more of a glittering palace; a show-piece State school. The one thing we were sure of was that we wanted a school not obsessed by the pressures of examinations.

TRENDS: *So far as you were concerned a grammar school link was out?*

R.L.: It hardly made sense to link up with an area of academic selection, when academic selection was disappearing in state education. A grammar school link probably would'nt have worked anyway. Perhaps I should say wouldn't have got started. The freedom of Dartington might have seemed a much greater threat to a highly-structured grammar school than it did to Northcliffe High School which is at the moment a secondary modern school. Grammar school teachers might have had the idea that our pupils do no work you see, and also they would consider that they talk back and argue too much.

TRENDS: *How does the scheme work in practice?*

R.L.: The most important thing about it is that it's a two-way exchange. We have a sixth form group which involves pupils from Northcliffe coming down to Dartington for the full two year course as an alternative to going to work or to Mexborough Sixth Form College. Parallel with this, a group of sixth formers goes up from here to live at the Terrace, that's our residential annex. This group mostly does social work training with the people at the Red House, the *epa* centre in Denaby and more formal courses for them will start next year.

Below the sixth form we take some children who have a need to live away from home for some reason. These children come full-time to Dartington. Finally, and I think most importantly, we run courses throughout the year for groups from Northcliffe in the third, fourth and fifth years, and Northcliffe runs parallel courses for our kids. Our groups also live at the Terrace, which has beds for twenty-five people. These short courses are for about eight pupils and last from three weeks to a month. The aim is for everyone from Northcliffe—and because it's the area school for Conisbrough that means every child in the town—to have at least one residential spell at Dartington or at an annex in Conisbrough during his or her school career.

TRENDS: *How many children have so far been involved in the scheme?*

R.L.: We've had 450 Northcliffe children here on short stays and 36 ex-Northcliffe pupils full-time in the sixth form. About 150 Northcliffe children have lived and worked at an annex in their turn. Some 200 of our pupils have lived at an annex and done courses at Northcliffe. There is much to-ing and fro-ing by the staffs between the schools.

TRENDS: *The progressive ethic in education has been criticised as being an unrealistic preparation for life. How far do you think this affects the Northcliffe children who come here?*

R.L.: Dartington is much more outward looking than it used to be. It isn't lotus-land any more. We have tried to encourage a

positive awareness of the authoritarian, hierarchical, stressful and unequal society into which our people will go when they leave here. As far as the Northcliffe children are concerned I don't think any of them are likely to be adversely affected, they are mostly down to earth and realistic. Very few go off the rails here although occasionally they find the freedom of Dartington hard to take and the multiplicity of choices open to them overwhelming at first, but they soon get used to it. I often ask the tutorial groups I take from Northcliffe what they might have lost or gained by coming here. None of them say they feel they have been contaminated. One can see the great advances in verbal facility and self-confidence that they make. They gain too in restraint and become able to look ahead a bit. What seems to happen is that the social concern that exists in large measure among the Northcliffe children gets turned into career opportunities—realistic ones like work with handicapped children, training in physiotherapy. These things probably wouldn't have come about if they hadn't been able to separate from their roots for a while. This does not mean they become cut off from their background, most of them seem to remain as integrated with their families as they were when they left.

TRENDS: *How do the two groups—that is to say the Northcliffe children and those that are from a middle class background get on together? Do they integrate in the way you hoped when starting the scheme?*

R.L.: This scheme works because of co-education I think. Respect and affection for people of the opposite sex crosses social barriers. I don't think the kind of integration we get could be achieved in a boys' boarding school—not those that I know of anyway. Also I should say that although we have some millionaires' sons or daughters we do have over eighty non-Yorkshire children receiving some kind of relief or scholarship help on a means-test basis. Apart from myself and the bursar no one knows who these children are. Finally, because of the style of the school I defy anyone to pick out who among the pupils is a millionaire's son and who is a miner's; dress certainly won't tell you, nor behaviour. Certain assumptions that cannot be hidden are of course acquired from a middle-class background but these aren't a barrier to contact. Don't get the wrong idea, it isn't only Dartington that is giving; the Northcliffe children bring something here that we need. They bring vitality and vigour. The boys bring a masculinity that can sometimes be lacking in a co-educational boarding setting; they bring a large amount of social concern. They also bring an ability to get on and do things which is stimulating to the school. Sport has never been better.

TRENDS: *You haven't found any difficulty in attracting enough fee paying people now you have this scheme? You quoted a parent as saying, 'Why should I pay a thousand a year to have my kid educated at a state secondary modern school in the North'.*

R.L.: We don't have difficulty. In fact there's a waiting list of several hundred to come to Dartington, and the Trust has

thought about setting up another school. A lot of parents are attracted to Dartington because they see it as a place where their children won't be segregated from the mainstream of educational development, where they will come into contact with children from a wide social background. They aren't usually the same kind of people who would choose to send their sons or daughters to a public school. Many are highly motivated socially. That is not to say we didn't have some withdrawals when I came here and started this scheme, but there weren't many.

TRENDS: *What about examinations and examination results? The progressive sector of education has I believe always claimed to have little interest in this sort of thing.*

R.L.: I don't agree with that. If you are equipping children for the outside world where fulfilment in life is often going to depend on examination results then one has to approach exams realistically. That is not the same thing as forcing people to take exams. We take O-levels and A-levels and do pretty well; as well as most public schools and better than comparable state schools. There is in this school a philosophic group among the students who oppose examinations as being the sacred cow of a rotten society and we respect this view. Examinations can be a nuisance but they don't strangle us: we take them in our stride towards broader ends.

TRENDS: *How far does your duty to parents have to influence this view of examinations on the part of some pupils?*

R.L.: We try to persuade by putting forward the view to the students that examinations will give their lives choice. If they persist in the view that examinations are not for them we discuss this with the parents and the boy or girl can put their point of view. If feelings against examinations are sincerely held one must respect them; on the other hand very often a person's ideas change. We point this out to them and hope it takes effect.

The number taking A-levels from here has doubled in three years. Over 54 per cent of subject entries result in grades a or b or c. You see this school is basically one full of able children and from the examination point of view there is no difficulty because they can take mode 3-CSE and get a grade one and there you have your O-level, it's A-level examinations that are more difficult. We've been pressing the Boards for mode 3 A-levels but haven't got very far yet. It'll come, one day.

TRENDS: *Dartington is a progressive school. How far are the Northcliffe people involved in its running—the children that is?*

R.L.: Many of them are very active, and vocal when they have had time to settle in. All staff meetings are open to them and to all the pupils to attend. The main controlling body of the school is what we call Moot. This meets about once a fortnight. On it everyone, staff and students, has an equal vote. Then there's the Senate. This is a much smaller body of elected representatives—two members of staff and ten students; its job really is to prepare an agenda for the meetings of the Moot.

TRENDS: *And these bodies have real power do they? Headmasters tell us they have committees of students running their schools and you find when you enquire that they have a committee to choose the flowers for the school entrance hall.*

R.L.: I cannot do anything in the running of the school if the students do not want it. In fact they have stopped me from doing things I very much wanted to do. I wanted to stop smoking but I was out-voted. I wanted to introduce a quiet hour in the evenings, to encourage the idea of rooms as places for working. In most schools all the head would have had to do was announce that 8.0 p.m. until 9.0 p.m. was a quiet hour and leave it at that. It took me about eighteen months of discussion to get it agreed because the majority of the students were against it. As Head I do have the constitutional powers to introduce such things, but if I had forced this no one would take any notice. Force is usually ineffective as a way of settling most things. I seldom attend meetings of the Postern (this is the house—formerly the headmaster's house—where the sixth form live) on the basis that this is their house and it is up to them to run it.

TRENDS: *Who runs meetings then; who acts as chairman?*

R.L.: Someone will be elected, it may be a member of staff, it may be a student. If there are disagreements the parties have to get together and work it out, I'm very seldom brought in. As you will have realised by now the basis of progressive education is talk. There isn't any *us* and *them* between staff and students, we divide in different ways on different issues.

TRENDS: *Has any of this what one might call 'democracy' rubbed off on the State school through the linked scheme do you think?*

R.L.: In small ways yes. We probably create more pressures for Northcliffe than they do for us. There has been a move for the Northcliffe students to call the teachers by their christian names. Arthur Young has tried to introduce a more participatory form of government, but as he has no sixth form it isn't easy.

There are fewer natural leaders of maturity and many inarticulate children. You cannot have participatory government if no one has anything to say. This is where our joint new scheme, the 'alternative to school' will help I think. It's a further link between Northcliffe and ourselves. This is to be a practical experiment in alternative schooling. What we propose to do is to use the Terrace annex as a base for 24–30 pupils from Northcliffe who will work from there during their final school year. This would be a group which would have left school at 15 had the law not been changed. The group will have a certain float of money which it will have to manage and to which it can add by various projects it devises. Regular attendance at school 9.0 a.m. to 4.0 p.m. will not be insisted on; hours will depend on projects being undertaken not on some arbitrary time-table.

The basic question the group will have to answer, and it will be asked regularly during the years is, 'The Law has given you another year at school, whether you like it or not. You

have a year of your life to use: what do you want to do with it?'

Throughout the year the job or training that each person in the group might be going on to will be kept in mind. The aim of the project will be to explore certain basic themes. Some of the issues that are bound to come up are personal relationships and sex, ethical and religious problems, and economic problems. The group will be able to explore the culture of the area and evaluate it. The members will be able to do creative work in the broadest sense.

This proposal does not derive from any opposition on my part to schools as such but comes from practical experience of the fact that many of our schools as we now constitute them are failing many of our children.

This article is by the British delegate to the World Youth Forum held in the USA in January 1972.

World Youth Meeting

MICHAEL PORTILLO

Michael Portillo was a pupil at Harrow County School for Boys until July 1972.

New York's first snow of the winter, and we had been allocated a school classroom where the heating had failed. We sat huddled in a tight circle at our school desks, each very quietly summing up the new faces which comprised the group. Between the setting and the nervous silence, we might have been a class on its first day at primary school, but, in fact, this was the rather undramatic beginning to an international gathering—the World Youth Forum 1972.

An astute observer at Kennedy Airport might have noticed us arriving one by one during the first few days of January. Nothing in our backgrounds would have suggested a link between us—they were as various as the shades of our skins—only the fact that each had been selected by his or her country to be a delegate to the Forum, and that we were now all setting foot in the United States for the first time, to be accepted as guests of complete strangers to begin our three month stay in or around New York City.

That chilly classroom in the small town of Briarcliff Manor to the north of New York was the scene of the delegates' first meeting. We were to spend three days there at 'orientation', learning about the USA and something of what our roles as delegates would entail, through lectures and discussions set against a background of excellent hospitality.

Those three days came to an end all too soon, just as the delegates were really growing close. The opportunity for twenty young people from all over the world to come to know each other and exchange impressions was only one aspect of the Forum: now it was time to embark upon a second. The World Youth Forum was originally established by the New York Herald Tribune newspaper in 1946 with the primary intention of giving New York high school students an impression of life outside their own country by exposing them to this group of their contemporaries brought from all over the globe. To this end, each of us was to attend three high schools around the city for a period of three weeks at each, going in each day, not so much to learn, as to give lectures and answer questions, show films or transmit an idea of the life-style in our own countries in any way that occurred to us.

I first attended a high school in Massapequa, on Long Island, staying with the Ball family and joining fully in their day to day life. Just to stress that we were to regard ourselves as part of each family, the Forum organisers termed them our 'host fathers' and 'host mothers', and, of course, in each family there was at least one 'brother' or 'sister' of approximately our own age with whom we could go into the high school on weekdays.

Generally, our time in school went very smoothly, so long as we were prepared to take the initiative in introducing ourselves to teachers and

arranging to take classes. Massapequa High had 2800 pupils, and Abraham Lincoln High School in Brooklyn where I spent my last three weeks, a staggering 4500, so that one had to struggle to make one's presence known. I felt that I should dress as the other pupils (very casually!) and fit in with their ways. This certainly helped to make the question-and-answer sessions quite informal, but, of course, made it more difficult to let people know I had arrived, so that in each school much useful work that I might have done was lost because contact was made too late. On the other hand, I sometimes felt we were being treated rather as a commodity, with some teachers inviting us to address their classes only because it saved them the effort of teaching for a few hours.

It was sometimes a problem to get the audience to come forth with questions. I found that the majority (particularly in the further-flung suburban areas) had very limited horizons, some to the extent where they might make only a couple of trips per year as far as the city, so it seemed a sad reflection that occasionally not one could think of a question for someone from outside their own country. When things went well, the questions most asked concerned day to day matters of interest to that age group: drugs, rock music, dating habits and the like; or things that they thought characterised England: the Beatles, the Queen and peasouper fogs! The little research I had done into various details and statistics of British political and social life was rarely called upon, although with the worsening position in Northern Ireland while I was there, I could usually expect that topic to occur. When it did, it was impossible to give an answer to their satisfaction. They wanted the whole situation explained, but tended to lose interest after about five minutes, which meant I had to cram several centuries of history into a few sentences; however, even this was easier than giving 'the solution' as many demanded!

I estimate that I must have answered the same question on the drug situation in Britain over 150 times, and of course, this made it very difficult for me to keep the answer lively and fresh. I resorted to giving a different angle on the problem each time I answered so as not to become too bored with myself, and my work rate fell off very noticeably between the beginning and the end of my stay, from six or seven classes per day when I started in Massapequa, to only two or three by the end of the three weeks in Brooklyn.

American students were horrified to hear that in many English schools uniforms are still compulsory: they assumed that this went hand-in-hand with very strict and limiting discipline. In fact, the T-shirt and jeans were worn so universally, and anything else greeted with such horror, that I felt there was more uniformity with them than I had ever seen in my own school. In some ways, for all the talk of individuality and freedom, American students appeared very restricted by self-imposed conventions. There was one sort of music to be enjoyed, sports performance seemed to be the chief criterion for categorising people in terms of success or failure, whilst the educational system seemed to aim very much at the middle-ability range, without offering much encouragement to the lower or higher ability groups. Petty restrictions regarding the use of spare time within school did nothing to develop the students' sense of responsibility, yet these same people are expected to exercise their right to vote in elections.

On the other hand, I was impressed by the variety of course that students were able to pursue at high school level, and, of course, a much greater proportion are still at school at age 18 than in England, and a large number can expect to go on to higher education.

Teachers and pupils alike were invariably welcoming and helpful. While I was talking with classes I would receive invitations to parties, or suggestions for how best to fill my time. I found that the host families tended to fill my time pretty well, sometimes extremely well. Plans were forever being made for me to go out to dinner, to go out to shows, movies, museums, ballet and the sights. My families were even amazingly generous in making gifts, so that I returned to England looking rather like Santa Claus!

The Balls, the Smiths in Saddle Brook, New Jersey and the Jacobs in Brooklyn. I was extremely lucky each time, and the families always gave the impression of being honoured rather than burdened by hosting a delegate. Generally, the other delegates were lucky also, but there were a few cases of bad matching or unsuitable families. The selection was in the hands of advisers appointed from the high school staffs, and the care put into this task varied greatly from one to another: naturally one's enjoyment of the Forum depended very heavily on the family and their attitude to their role as hosts.

Every delegate from whatever country was required to be fluent in English, and although it was the native language for only three of us, nearly all spoke it perfectly. Most were of high quality in intellect and personality, and gave their own opinions without necessarily defending their own country. It was encouraging to note that Yugoslavia had sent a non-Communist, that the Chilean admitted he opposed Allende, and that Nigeria was represented by an Ibo girl from defeated Biafra.

Once a month during our stay, a seminar was held in New York at which the delegates and American students could discuss topics of world-wide interest. During the visit of President Nixon to mainland China, for example, the Asian delegates were able to give their audience a new depth of understanding regarding China's influence and importance in their continent. There was an amazing variety of experience within the group of twenty delegates, and much to be learnt from each. Particularly it impressed me to listen to those involved in wars which, for me, had been no more than newspaper stories, but which for the students from India, Nigeria, Israel and Lebanon were very real.

Towards the end of the visit to the USA, delegates from all the countries met together in Washington for one week and talked to officials from the State Department and organisations like the World Band and the National Academy of Sciences.

Then on to New York. These last weeks were for me some of the most interesting. This was my only experience of living in New York City itself. Tales of the violence and particularly of the terrible racial problems in Brooklyn had me distinctly nervous about starting this last three week period, but in fact, the predominantly white, Jewish area in which I stayed was not at all violent; it is, though a feature of New York that the 'safety' of an area can change dramatically from one city block to the next, so that I did not go wandering too much on my own. Race relations in Abraham Lincoln High School were not bad, as far as one could judge, although in some schools not far away,

the students must move around the school corridors in groups for fear of being attacked. There is no way to forget one's own colour and what it means while in New York; I went to dinner in a predominantly black area with students both black and white. The evening did not break up until after dark, and for each white who left the house, one of the black students would go along to make sure that nothing happened to him on his way out of the area.

I certainly do not think that there is more prejudice in the United States than in England—the two seemed quite comparable to me—but it is the element of fear that one race feels about the other that most struck me as being greater in New York. The issue of bussing—whether schools should be integrated by transporting blacks into white areas and just as importantly, whites into black areas—was threatening to boil up into violent controversy while I was there. Communities like Massapequa feel themselves threatened with destruction by the plan, whilst the idea seemed to be no more popular amongst the blacks that I spoke to. Integration was widely regarded as a dead letter, and there was pessimistic talk of the problem being solved only either by total segregation or by civil war.

I soon learnt where to walk in New York and where it was not safe to do so, and of course, to get home early if I was travelling by subway. My first solo excursion on the subway I spent nervously looking out for potential attackers, but I soon realised that this is the most likely way to be 'mugged', and learnt to adopt the vacant, near-death look that all experienced subway travellers seem to wear. By night, to go any distance in small numbers is unwise, except by car, and here I noticed a subtle difference between the English and the Americans: here one generally locks a car door so as to be sure of not falling out; there it is more usually to prevent others from getting in!

Another great fear in New York, especially for a parent, is the worsening drug situation. I came across little evidence of hard-drug addiction, but marijuana was in general use in some of the schools I visited, and a primary school principal told me how 'pushers' were now touting for customers amongst his six and seven year old pupils. With heroin selling at such a high price, desperate drug addicts accounted for a fair proportion of New York crime, and there was little indication of any likely improvement in the position.

While in the United States, I saw many things that gave me reason for criticism. In the school system, I considered much to be mediocre, and outside I often felt that people were judged simply by the criterion of their income. The arrogance of a few in asserting that their country was 'best' when many seemed to have no accurate impression of life outside, irritated me very much. However, since I left the USA these facets have paled in comparison with the many aspects that I liked: most of all there was something very attractive in the American informality and exuberant pace of life. The 'American Dream', as I interpreted it, contrasted in its simplicity with the rat race I had been expecting to find; most important in that dream, I thought, was a desire for peace, and I felt with them a deep sorrow that it should be exactly this that most eludes them. I shall never tire of praising the Americans with whom I had contact for their boundless hospitality, which I could never be sure would be reciprocated in this country.

TREND-SETTER

The Staveley Experiment

In the quest for an increased sense of community responsibility for the development of young children's linguistic competence, an experiment involving twelve older secondary school children meeting and talking with twelve infant children who have been in their school for one term has just been filmed by the Sheffield University Film Unit.

The first film which is titled *Talking Together* sets out to investigate ways in which older children's expertise might be harnessed to increase the younger children's opportunity for a one-to-one learning situation, and for the older children to develop their awareness of the importance of talking to young children in the light of their present rôle as members of a family and in their future rôle as parents.

The experiment, which is part of a larger piece of research being carried out concerning pre-school experience, is the responsibility of the Institute of Education, University of Sheffield, in co-operation with the Derbyshire Education Authority. Other agencies involved are the school clinic staff, school staffs and third year college of education students—the latter working as a team of four with the institute's lecturer in primary education. Together they are conducting a ten week contact programme with the experimental group.

In the contact programme it is the team's aim to help the older children to develop, through structured situations and structured games, the younger children's language skills. The experiment has received full co-operation from secondary, infant, clinic and college staffs. Some forty local teachers who are at present engaged in an ATO/DES foundations of language course have had the opportunity to see the film and analyse the reactions and responses of the children.

A second film is now being made and this will also be made available for examination by the same group of teachers when the contact programme has been completed.

The schools concerned in the experiment are St. Joseph's R.C. Infants School, Staveley, Derbyshire, and Middlecroft Secondary Modern School, Middlecroft, Derbyshire. Interest in the work has been expressed by parents who have readily helped in collecting basic materials needed for promoting the various simulation games. In June parents will have had the opportunity to view the film and become more involved in discussion related to the importance of home linguistic interaction.

The experiment does not seek to be over ambitious but merely recognises the possibility of enriching, in the immediate short term, family interaction; it is a long term investment in future parents. The latter concern is based on the recognition that all pupils leaving the secondary school are but a minimal distance from responsibility age and potential parenthood. Documentation of poor or non-inheritance of purposeful parental responsibility in early cognitive development practices has been carried out by many sociologists but what in this country may now be required, over and above the fundamental research, are programmes of 'action research'. Desirable as universal nursery education might be, the addition of such a strata in the schooling system may still not be available for all and in that event many children will spend their first five years in the home. The concern must still be for home experience to be purposeful and sustaining through parental encouragement and involvement. The experiment though on a small scale may find some early practical strategies.

Towards the end of the summer term the secondary pupils, accompanied by the adults involved in the experiment, visited bookshops and toyshops. A discussion was then held about the general values and purposes of these materials and aids

within the home setting. The problem of creation of space and time and parental expertise, set against the reality of family living, will be of particular concern.

No measured changes of attitudes, patterns of approach or values are being claimed by the experimenters, but that interest within the community has obviously been evoked, is becoming increasingly apparent.

D. N. Hubbard, Lecturer in Primary Education, Institute of Education, University of Sheffield.

English—The APE-X System

Dr. Duane Dornack, Associate Superintendent, Powder River County High School, writes to us from Broadus, Montana, U.S.A.

The APE-X system as evolved at Powder River County District High School can be defined as approximate placement in English for each student in which X is the individual variable and goal of each student.

APE-X is an approximate placement curriculum which is designed to individualize instruction while giving each student the materials he needs at the level of difficulty most appropriate for him. As a consequence, students who already write well are placed together regardless of whether they are freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors. In the same respect, students who have similar writing problems or similar interests are grouped together regardless of class level. If a student in a composition section for less able writers can read extremely well, he is placed in a literature unit with more able students. No student is placed on a given level or curriculum for all areas of instruction. Also, each student has an opportunity to remedy weaknesses with an equal opportunity to do advanced work in any area in which he excels.

The entire English curriculum is broken into four and one-half week units (a few of which are connected and must be studied consecutively). These units are in five categories: literature, language, composition, speech, and enrichment. The enrichment units are those which are either unique or have appeal to students seeking the fundamentals of the four other categories.

The categories are designations of emphasis only. All techniques of teaching are valuable within every unit and a literature unit will involve skills such as writing, listening, and good speaking. In the same respect a speech unit could conceivably require literature, composition, and enrichment in addition to speaking and listening.

Students in Powder River County High School are expected to complete eight units of study each year. These units are selected by the students from among the different categories. A student may not devote an entire year's work in English to one or two titles in one category but flexibility in choosing courses appropriate for himself exists, as there are over thirty classes to choose from during the course of the year. The courses range from Afro-American Literature and Indian Mythology to Logic and Techniques of Debate.

Since the APE-X system is being used for the first time in the high school, the students have selected a wide and varied range of English courses and oftentimes will be taking two English classes of four and one-half weeks duration during the course of one time span. This makes marking on a nine-week basis extremely difficult and a reordering of reporting procedures has begun due to the change in the English program.

The English department also attempts to coordinate many of its offerings with other subject area classes. As an example, the research paper class learned the techniques of writing research papers while applying these skills to a project due in anthropology. The applied grammar course crossed subject matter lines while preparing papers for biology class and while serving as student proctors during a recent speech meet. The list of possible combinations in this realm are unlimited.

During the upcoming school year classes in the English department are expected

to be more sequential. Certain requirements and prerequisites are being evolved: course offerings in which a background of knowledge of the discipline is necessary before an understanding and competence in the advanced course can take place. Also, students who are poor in an area will be directed by their advisor toward courses which will help alleviate their problems. This will cause a small core of required courses for each student and will also bring into play a more individualized scheduling within the English curriculum for each student.

Probably the most outstanding development of the new English program is its effect on the students within the high school. For the first time many of the students are enjoying the opportunity to engage in the study of English. The old visions of English courses taught by grey-haired ladies with large rulers has been surmounted, and seeing students take up to sixteen English courses a year is certainly a positive development at Powder River High School.

Psychological Aspects of Physical Education and Sport

J. E. Kane (Ed.)

Routledge and Kegan Paul £2.50

Although Dr. Kane, Head of the Physical Education Department of St. Mary's College, Twickenham, states in a short preface that this book was initially planned to answer the particular needs of undergraduate as well as graduate students in physical education, it is likely to be of most use to psychologists or to physical educationists who are reading for an advanced diploma or second degree, or in James Report terms for the third cycle. The book is presumably intended for the American as well as the British market since four of the authors of eight discrete chapters are members of Universities or Colleges in the United States.

The editor does not claim to cover all the important areas of psychology which are relevant to physical education and sport, confining the work to perception, learning, personality, emotion and motivation. The chapter dealing with the last-named is restricted in its approach and so the affects of knowledge of results, incentives and reinforcement on learning and performance are not discussed at any length though they are touched on by some of the contributors. There is also a chapter on the psychology of qualitative movement by a member of the Psychology Department of the Leeds College of Art and a succinct and informative chapter by Dr. J. N. Oliver on physical activity and the psychological development of the handicapped.

Since many physical educationists are involved daily in a teacher/learner relationship they might prefer fewer references to laboratory tests of a repetitive type and more analysis or comparison of different methods of teaching and of observation of differences in inter-action brought about by variation in the composition of groups. But Dr. Whiting puts his finger on the difficulty in meeting this need when he states in a lucid chapter on learning motor skills that 'too little research at the present time has gone into the teaching of skills and to the teaching of skills at particular age levels'. Nevertheless the teacher will find throughout the book very useful references to several controversial issues in physical education. More than one author discusses the role of competition and the expression of aggression through play and sports. One comment from the chapter on the contribution of these to emotional health would provide a good topic for debate: 'most if not all the emotional health benefits of competitive sports may be realised in a good intra-mural programme'.

For those interested in dance and other expressive aspects of movement the

analysis of three conceptual categories of human movement—instrumental, qualitative and quantitative—will be stimulating and provocative. This section also includes a tribute to, and a short, astringent evaluation of, Laban's contribution to the historical development of creative dance. In brief the reader will be able to form his own synthesis from the eight chapters but in this he will not be helped to the full by an index which is not as comprehensive or as carefully compiled as the bibliographies at the end of each chapter. At times too he will have to extract his needs from a heavy diet of technical terminology.

In some ways this is an important book—it introduces a new range of ideas and succeeds in showing the complex human factors which may be involved in the learning and performance of physical activity by an individual or group. In other ways it is a disturbing one. The high proportion of American references is disappointing. Even allowing for the long start and greater resources in research from which the United States has benefitted this imbalance suggests that the results of research for advanced courses or higher degrees in this country are either inaccessible, ignored or of little value. Two quotations from the James Report perhaps reflect the strength and weakness of this book: 'the teaching of any subject, to intending teachers and other students alike, should be illuminated by some awareness of its relationship to other areas of knowledge', and 'courses have in many cases become too academic, in the bad sense which that word should never have acquired'.

K.R.B.

Projections

Eric Midwinter (Ed.)

Ward Lock Educational £1.00

Social Environment and the Urban School

Eric Midwinter

Ward Lock 50p

Projections brings together ten working papers issued in the course of the years 1968–71 by various members of the team involved in the Educational Priority Area Project in Liverpool. Recognising that the problems of such an area demand solution through the community as a whole rather than just in the schools, these papers cover a wide area of work. Inquiring and experimenting through action-research, the approaches range from the use of an old double-decker bus as a pre-school play group and exhibitions of children's work in local shops to adult education, co-operation with parents, and the training of teachers specifically for work in priority areas. There are some detailed accounts of curricula experiments and a valuable factual analysis of the conditions in the area in which each school is based.

Throughout, the approach is practical and unsentimental. Tribute is paid to the exceptional enthusiasm and devotion of teachers in the schools concerned and to the concern of the parents for their children. Dr Midwinter is at pains to emphasise that the so-called apathy of the people in a priority area is more apparent than real. He believes that, roused to greater awareness, they would gladly take the initiative to improve their own environment. Since the vast majority of the children in the schools will inevitably remain in the areas in which they were born, Dr Midwinter urges that the need is to awaken them to a knowledge of their surroundings and a determination to improve them for themselves. He maintains therefore that the vital need is for social studies based on the locality.

Dr Midwinter writes with the assurance and fire of a pioneer. He seeks to justify his statements both in practice and philosophically. At times, however, his reforming zeal becomes inconsistent with his views as an educationalist. This is particularly marked in the case of the pamphlet *Social Environment and the Urban School.* Rightly inveighing against outdated methods and attitudes in the classroom, he insists that a community based curriculum 'is an outward looking attitude not an introverted one'. Rightly he insists that the important thing is 'stretching the

children intellectually and creatively on the social issues that confront them' and that 'it is a question of exercising social skills in viable and immediate content'. He has, however, a strange mistrust of the realms of the imagination.

Many who share the author's concern for children from socially deprived areas and recognise the need for exceptional efforts to help them would disagree with his implicit assumption that the educational provision made must be radically different from that for the rest of the country. This way lies the ghetto, despite his denials. Granted that disadvantaged children's needs are special to them, but so are those of every child, if rightly met. True education 'starts where the child is'. Examined in detail, the writer's practical advice is clearly based on this fundamental assumption of much of the best work in modern primary schools.

It is distressing to find such an author descending to exaggerated polemic. Reading his description of work in English, history, geography and RE, a layman might be excused if he believed that these had not changed in a century. Dr Midwinter's conclusions may reflect a particular situation that he knows, but to imply that this is general is misleading. Work based on the study of the immediate neighbourhood is in no way new and many fresh experiments in this direction have been made in the recent past. There is an inherent danger in making a specific study of this kind in isolation. It can result in a parochial and over-emotive view. This would be an unrealistic approach to the rapidly changing, international world of the future.

Many of the apparent inconsistencies in Dr Midwinter's writing are undoubtedly due to the need to write against time. As he himself says, much of the value of the approaches tried cannot yet be adequately assessed. The urgent practical need for a handbook of suggestions for teachers has left many unresolved philosophical ends. One looks forward with real hope to subsequent papers from 'Priority' as progress is made towards matured, resolved, conclusions.

B.E.M.

The Radical Tradition in Education in Britain

Brian Simon (ed. with intro.)

Lawrence and Wishart £1.00 (paper)

The Literature of Education (A Critical Bibliography 1945-1970)

W. Kenneth Richmond

Methuen £1.30 (paper)

The Sociology of Education (second ed.)

P. W. Musgrave

Methuen £1.30 (paper) £2.75 (hardback)

Readings in Human Intelligence

H. J. Butcher and D. E. Lomax (ed.)

Methuen £1.50 (paper)

It is tempting to look at the first two books together. The first is a compilation of writings which shared some key radical assumptions about education, the second a critical bibliography of mid-twentieth century literature on education. The temptation is to see how far the radical tradition has survived.

Brian Simon, in a helpful introduction, tells us that the radical tradition 'sees educational change as a key aspect (or component) of radical social change'. He starts at the end of the eighteenth century with Paine and Godwin in whom 'can be found the main characteristics of the radical tradition in education as it developed during the nineteenth century'. These characteristics were, first 'the emphasis on the formative power of education' and 'the whole theory of human perfectibility', secondly 'the emphasis on science and scientific education as the means to truth', and thirdly 'the insistence that the totality of social influences, including those of political institutions, are and must be educative'.

In contrast to such stirring pioneering passages between 1793 and 1884 our guide to more recent literature finds 1945–1960

so disappointing that he calls them 'the years of drift'. W. Kenneth Richmond, in his very useful and usable bibliography, locates 'the loosening of the log-jam in British educational thought' in the Crowther, Robbins and Newsom Reports, all 'strongly influenced by the evidence regarding the effects of social class, and the disclosure of serious wastage in the nation's potential manpower and brainpower'. Point one of the radical tradition was still alive.

Of point two, the emphasis on science, there is less trace. 'Possibly because there is so much talk about the need for curriculum renewal, there are as yet very few British books on the subject'. But there is a mention for Nuffield and the Schools Council, and some evidence 'that serious curriculum study in Britain is making up for lost time'.

On point three, the sociology of education, this is 'now very much in the ascendant' after 'a period of arrested development in Britain during the early decades of the twentieth century'. The ascendancy owes not a little to Dr Musgrave, whose readable and comprehensive book (first published in 1965) now appears in a second edition with an expanded text to take account of recent research, particularly in the organisation of secondary schools, and with new chapters on socialisation, the peer group, and the mass media.

The viability of the radical tradition today turns, crucially perhaps, on what we conclude to be the truth about human intelligence. A generous selection of writings in the sixties on this still vexed subject is offered by Butcher and Lomax in a companion volume to the earlier *Human Intelligence* (Butcher). It lives up to the claim of 'a representative selection of the most important recent articles'.

N.C.

Decisions 2: Distribution—Coastal Tankers

Compiled by Bath University School of Education and Shell-Mex and B.P. Ltd.

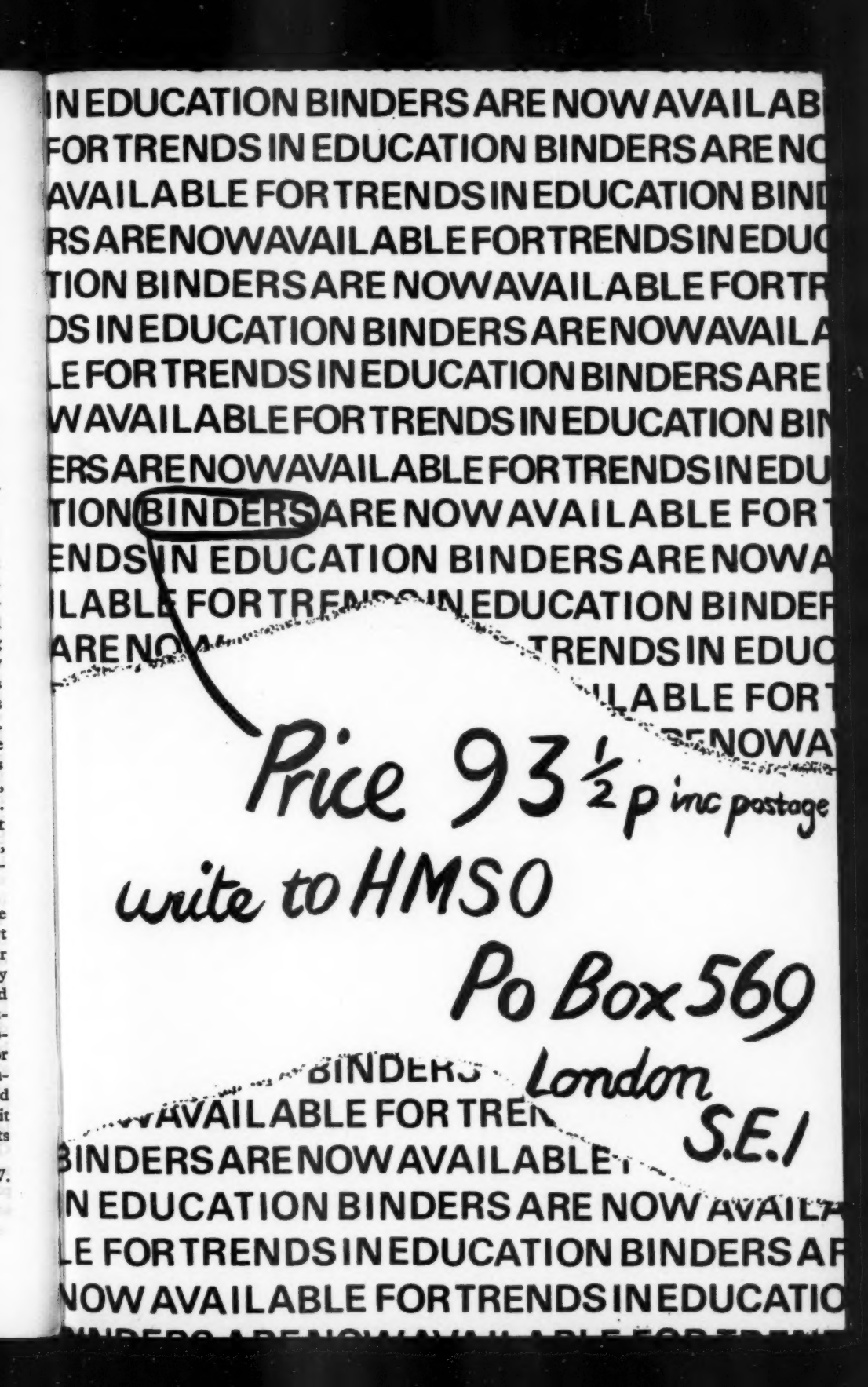
The School Government Publishing Co. Ltd. £10 (incl. postage)

How does a large oil company organise its fleet of coastal tankers to cope with the growth in demand for gas oil? How does the company ensure increased productivity in the fleet? The aim behind *Coastal Tankers*, the second in a series of six educational kits, is to bridge the communication gap between industry and the schools and to give pupils the opportunities for problem-solving and decision-making outside the normal school curriculum. The exercises in this kit are based on actual situations which have arisen within a prominent oil company—the details have been analysed by Shell Mex and BP and the Bath University School of Education to produce a series of interesting projects for sixth form general studies.

It is unnecessary for the teacher or student to have detailed knowledge of business terms, management techniques or complicated mathematics in order to make full use of the material. Clear logical thinking is what is required and the attractively produced kit contains a useful teacher's guide offering a number of suggestions as to how the material may best be used. Nine sets of students' texts outline the six problem areas and a data bank includes background information, maps, statistics, pictures and expendable calculation sheets. The six problems posed cover investment decisions, assessing plant requirement, cost efficiency, work study and productivity bargaining with unions.

The material provides students with the unusual opportunity of playing the part of oil company executives running their own coastal tanker fleet. The authenticity of the problems should provide added appeal and the material stimulate discussion and awareness of industrial problems. Although designed primarily for sixth form use, students at further education colleges, first year undergraduates and management trainees should find the kit of equal value and interest—pity it costs so much!

B.A.W.


IN EDUCATION BINDERS ARE NOW AVAILAB
FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATION BINDERS ARE NO
AVAILABLE FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATION BIND
RS ARE NOW AVAILABLE FOR TRENDS IN EDUC
TION BINDERS ARE NOW AVAILABLE FOR TR
DS IN EDUCATION BINDERS ARE NOW AVAIL A
LE FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATION BINDERS ARE
W AVAILABLE FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATION BIN
ERS ARE NOW AVAILABLE FOR TRENDS IN EDU
TION BINDERS ARE NOW AVAILABLE FOR
ENDS IN EDUCATION BINDERS ARE NOW A
ILABLE FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATION BINDER
ARE NOW
TRENDS IN EDUC
ILABLE FOR
NOWA
Price 93½p inc postage
write to HMSO
Po Box 569
London
S.E.1
BINDERS
AVAILABLE FOR TRE
BINDERS ARE NOW AVAILABLE
IN EDUCATION BINDERS ARE NOW AVAIL
LE FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATION BINDERS AR
NOW AVAILABLE FOR TRENDS IN EDUCATIO